















THE

RHODE ISLAND

Educational Magazine,

VOL. 1, 1852,

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EDITED BY E. R. POTTER,

COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

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## RHODE ISLAND

# EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. 1.

PROVIDENCE, JANUARY 1, 1852.

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### NOTICE.

WE propose to publish a monthly educational journal, under the above title. It will appear about the first of every month. Each number will contain sixteen octavo pages, and as much more as we can find time and money to print.

Few such journals, even in larger States, have ever been supported by paying subscribers. Wishing to make the publication as useful as possible, and to circulate it in parts of the State, where we should, probably, obtain but few subscribers, we have determined to send it without charge to the clerk of every school-district, and to the chairman and clerk of every school committee, and to rely on the generosity of the public for the means of carrying it on.

It will contain the educational documents of the State, and such of the reports of city and town committees as we can conveniently publish. We shall, also, from time to time publish any articles on historical, agricultural or literary subjects which may be interesting to the people of Rhode Island.

Notice will also be given of any changes made in the laws regulating schools or the collection of taxes and of decisions upon any questions of law relating to them.

The copies sent to clerks of districts, and to chairmen and clerks of committees are intended for the use of the persons holding those offices, and to be delivered over to their successors, as belonging to the office. If any such copies are not taken from the Post Office or are misdirected, it is hoped that the Postmaster or some friend of education in the neighborhood will give information of it.

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NOTE.—We intended to have printed in this number Dr. Wayland's Address before the American Institute, and a considerable portion of it was in type, when we discovered that the term of copyright had not expired. The copyright belongs to the American Institute, and without a meeting of their Board, we could not obtain permission. We have therefore collected the materials for this number rather hastily.

We commence paging this number with 125, in order that the School law may be bound up with the volume.



From the Upper Canada Journal of Education.

## METHODS OF GIVING LESSONS ON OBJECTS.

### HEADS OF A LESSON ON A VEGETABLE SUBSTANCE.—CORK.—THE CORK-TREE.

1. Particulars regarding external appearances, qualities, &c.
2. Where it is found.
3. How the substance is obtained or prepared.
4. Uses to which it is applied.
5. History.

#### SPECIMENS OF NOTES ILLUSTRATIVE OF THESE HEADS.

1. (a) *The Tree*. Two varieties of the cork-tree—the narrow leaved and the broad leaved; attains the height of thirty feet; is an ever-green; has leaves of a bright color; oval shape, and indented edge; tree much like common oak in form, but more beautiful; called *quercus suber*; *quercus* means an oak tree; *suber*, cork, or cork-tree.

(b) *Piece of Cork*. 1st. *The Parts*:—has two ends, two surfaces, edges, &c. 2nd. *The qualities*—light, porous, opaque, elastic, compressible, smooth, &c.

2. Found in S. parts of France; in Spain, but most abundant in Catalonia and Valencia; in Portugal; in Italy; and Barbary, in Africa.

3. Cork is the outer bark of the tree; can be removed without injuring the tree; the best taken from old trees; that of young ones being too porous; taking off bark called peeling, done every ten years; if inner bark removed, the tree would be destroyed; removed from tree by curved knife with two handles; slits are made from top to bottom, others across, then removed in large or small pieces; this depends on the number of incisions across. When taken off, soaked, and afterwards placed over a fire to char it; this blackens the surface and closes the pores; thinner layers not thus operated on, because charred cork apt to give bad flavor to liquors stopped with it.

4. Used for stopping bottles and casks, because compressible and elastic; bungs and large corks more porous than small corks; pores of the latter lie across; floats of fishing-nets often made of cork; life-preservers; insuring buoyancy of life-boats; pieces fastened together form buoys; put between soles of shoes to keep out moisture, is impervious to water; on account of its lightness is made into false legs; when burnt, obtain Spanish black; great quantities made from the cork parings.

5. Use of cork for stopping bottles introduced about the 15th century; ancient Egyptians made coffins of it; principal exports from Valencia and Catalonia; duty on cork in a rough

state in England, 8s. per cwt.; price per cwt. from £20 to £70.

## FORM OF QUESTIONS.

1. How many varieties are there of the cork-tree? State the difference between them. To what height does it attain?—Describe the leaves. Explain what you mean by indented. What is the root of this word? What tree does the cork-tree resemble? The proper name of cork-tree. What does *quercus* mean? What do you mean by porous?—elastic?—compressible? Mention other objects having these qualities.

2. Where is the cork-tree found? Show me France on the map. How does Spain lie from France? What are Catalonia and Valencia? Show Italy, Barbary, &c.

3. What is cork? What is the best obtained from? Why are old trees better than young ones? How often is the bark stripped off? What word means taking off? How is the bark obtained from the tree? Describe the whole operation. Why is the bark charred? What is an incision?

Why is cork used for stopping bottles? Why are small corks less porous than large ones? Mention other uses to which it is applied. Explain the words buoyancy and impervious. To what other uses are cork parings applied?

5. Where does cork principally come from? What word means to *bring in*? What do you understand by *duty*? What is the duty on cork not manufactured? The value of cork per cwt.?

## REMARKS.

The upper classes should be required to write an abstract of the lesson. In order to assist them in this exercise, the teacher should write on the black-board the *Heads of the Lesson*, numbering them as in the example given above. The children are not, however, to number their answers; but each answer is to be a consecutive account of the object that has been described. They should also, be accustomed to give distinct answers to separate questions; when this is done, both the question and the answer should be numbered. The following are examples of such questions:—

1. Write the particulars concerning the external appearance of the cork-tree.

2. Mention all the qualities of cork, and clearly explain the meaning of each term.

3. Explain the mode of obtaining and preparing cork.

4. Enumerate the uses to which cork is applied.

From the Ohio School Journal.

DIRECTIONS AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE TEACHERS OF CINCINNATI CENTRAL SCHOOL.

BY H. H. BARNEY, THE PRINCIPAL.

1. They shall endeavor to understand thoroughly whatever they attempt to teach, so as not to be constantly chained down to the text-book : to this end, they shall make such a special preparation for each lesson, that they could recite it themselves, as readily and accurately as they would desire their pupils to do it.

2. They are to teach the subject, and not the book ; to point out the practical bearing and uses of the thing taught, and make it so familiar by repetition, as to fix it deeply and permanently in the mind ; for what is worth learning at all, is worth learning thoroughly and completely.

3. They are to assign no larger portion for each recitation than the class, with due diligence, can easily master, and then insist upon its being learned so perfectly that it can be repeated without the least hesitation ; until this is done, no new portion is to be given out.

4. They are to explain each new lesson assigned, if necessary, by familiar remarks and illustrations, that every pupil may know, before he is sent to his seat, *what* he is expected to do at the next recitation, and *how* it is to be done, to the end that he may study understandingly, and, therefore, with spirit and pleasure, and make rapid progress.

5. They are to require all rules and definitions, together with the more important parts of each subject of study, to be accurately committed to memory, and the whole *wrought* into the *understanding* as well as the *memory* of the pupil, by questions and familiar illustrations adapted to his capacity, until he has completely mastered it.

6. They are not to use during recitation the text-book themselves, excepting for an occasional reference, nor permit it to be taken to the recitation seat to be referred to by the pupils, excepting in the case of a parsing exercise, the translation of a language, or the solution of mathematical problems ; and even in the latter case, they are required to assign many problems of their own preparing, or those selected from kindred text-books, involving an application of what the pupils have learned to the business of life ; for the reason that they will be likely to possess more animation themselves, and enkindle a corresponding increased vivacity of spirit in the mind of their pupils, than if obliged to follow the very letter of the book.

7. They are to understand many more subjects than they

are required to teach, that they may be able at all times to give much oral, collateral, and indirect instruction, and be furnished on every subject with copious illustration and instructive anecdote; to this end, they are expected to pursue, daily, a regular course of professional reading and study.

3. They are not to do for their pupils what they, with proper explanation, can do for themselves, or what some member of their class can do for them; they are not to carry their explanation so far as to supersede the very effort on the part of their pupils, which it should be the design of such explanations to encourage; but they may diminish or shorten difficulties, divide and subdivide a difficult process, until the steps become so short that the pupil can take them without difficulty.

9. They must endeavor to arouse and fix the attention of the whole class, and to occupy and to bring into action as many of the faculties of their pupils as possible. They are never to proceed with the recitation without the attention of the whole class, nor go round the class, with the recitation, always in the same order, or in regular rotation; but to change the order frequently, selecting here and there a pupil, who may chance to be listless at the moment, so that all may be compelled, as it were, to be attentive, and ready to recite at any moment.

10. They are to exhibit proper animation themselves, manifesting a lively interest in the subject taught, avoiding all heavy, plodding movements, all formal routine in teaching, lest the pupil be dull and drowsy, and imbibe the notion that he studies only to recite, using his text-book as mere words, and having but little idea of any purpose of acquirement beyond mere recitation.

11. They must require of their pupils, at all times, prompt and accurate recitations, under penalty of detention after the close of the regular school hours, to make up the *deficit*. They are to endeavor to use language fluently and correctly, and to acquire a facility at explanation, a tact at discerning and solving difficulties; they must endeavor so to unfold, direct, and strengthen the mind as to bring out all its powers into full and harmonious action, and so to superintend the growth of the moral, mental, and physical faculties, as to develop them symmetrically, and fashion the whole into beauty and loveliness as they grow.

12. With respect to most subjects of study, they are required to have their pupils recite by *analysis*—that is, to give, in their own language, a general outline, a consecutive synopsis of the subject matter of the lesson; to be followed by general, appropriate, original questions, pointing out and illustrating its practical bearing, exciting curiosity, and awakening thought; but



in no case are the questions in the margin or at the end of the sections in the text-book, to be used, excepting for the purpose of an occasional review.

13. They are to keep a daily record of the merit of each pupil's recitation, his deportment, cleanliness, and the number of times absent or tardy ; the quality of merit of each recitation or exercise being marked at the time of its performance, on a scale varying from 10 to 0 ; 10 denoting perfect ; 8, good ; 6, tolerable ; 4, quite poor ; and 0, an entire failure ; to make a monthly abstract of the same, and transmit it to the parent or guardian, to be signed by him, and then returned by the pupil to the teacher.

14. They are not to rely too much upon simultaneous recitation, as it often takes away all individuality, making the pupil superficial, by causing him to rely on others, tempting him to indolence, by preventing his deficiencies from standing out by themselves, and consoling him with the reflection that he has been able to conceal his want of thoroughness. It may be resorted to, however, for the purpose of giving, occasionally, variety to the exercises, of arousing and exciting when dull and drowsy, or for the purpose of fixing in the mind important definitions, useful tables of weights and measures, the declension of nouns and pronouns, the conjugation, synopsis, and inflection of verbs, etc. ; and also, in certain spelling, reading, elocutionary, or orthophonic exercises, where the object is to embolden the pupils, to induce them to let out their voices, that their muscles of articulation may be strengthened, and all the vocal organs become well developed, and the voice rendered full-toned, firm, and harmonious.

15. They must not attempt to teach too many things at once, nor allow their pupils to direct their own studies, nor attend to extraneous business in school hours, nor occupy too much time in conversing with visitors, nor make excuses to visitors for the defects of their classes, nor use low and degrading epithets, nor wound the sensibilities of a dull scholar by disparaging comparisons.

16. They are required to see that their pupils move to and from the recitation room in a particular order, and always occupy the same place on the recitation seat, that if any one be absent, it can be detected at once, and the cause, if necessary, be immediately inquired into, and the proper entry made in the class register, without calling the entire roll.

## AMERICAN CHILDREN.

Several works of British travellers on this country have lately appeared, which display a degree of candor and intelligence in credible contrast with the general tone of ignorant misrepresentation or vulgar abuse, which has been too characteristic of this class of productions. The travels of Lady Stuart Wortley, of Colonel Cunynghame, and of Professor Johnston, and the brief but highly suggestive and intelligent lecture of the Earl of Carlile, at Manchester, have an aspect of sincerity and good nature, which encourages the hope that the duty of international slander and hatred are at an end. The criticisms of such observers upon the manners and traits of this country are worthy of all attention. They are made in no captious spirit, and are free from exaggeration and malice, and undoubtedly fairly reflect the impressions which our characteristics make upon cultivated European minds. It is both our wisdom and our duty to notice them, and to apply the correctives in the same spirit of good-will with which they are pointed out. In such way, the observations of travellers become highly useful, and something more than amusement is to be gathered from their perusal. National faults are incomparably worse than the faults of individuals. They not only injure our reputation abroad, but impair the influence of the policy and religion with which we may stand identified in the world's opinion.

One criticism occurs in two of the works we have mentioned, to which we feel disposed to hold the mirror up, and ask if they be so. It relates to the manners and characters of our youth. Both speak in terms of astonishment and censure of the pert and irreverent conduct of our children, as contrasted with the modesty and reserve which forms so conspicuous a part of what is deemed good breeding in the English family. Lady Wortley expresses herself thus :

"Little America is, unhappily, generally only grown-up America seen through a telescope turned the wrong way. The only point, perhaps, in which I must concur with other writers on the United States, is there being no childlike children there. The little creatures, looking all the time everything that is infantile and unsophisticated, will read novels and newspapers by the hour together, and the little boys will give you their opinions dictatorially enough occasionally ; and the little girls "talk toilette," and gossip, and descant on the merits of the last French novel, or the eligibility of such a *parti* for a husband for such a lady, or on the way Mrs. So-and-So misconducts her household affairs, and spends money at Newport or Saratoga Springs ; and so far this is not pleasing to our English tastes."

Colonel Cunynghame's evidence on the same point is thus given :

" Young England is frequently accused of being too precocious ; but in this respect, what comparison will she bear with Young America ? At the public table at Lockport, a boy, about thirteen years of age, entered freely into conversation respecting the merits of the different candidates who were about to stand, (or run, as it is here termed,) at the next election. This embryo politician was condemning one party for coalescing with the whigs, and another for too highly favoring the democratic party. It would, moreover, astonish some of our respectable elderly men of business, to observe with what an air of freedom a young fellow, of fifteen or sixteen, will strut into a counting-house, carefully remove his gloves, and having placed his cane in the corner, open his pocket book, and transact business to the amount of many thousand dollars, then whistle an opera tune, and ask your opinion, not forgetting first to give his own, respecting the merits of Jenny Lind."

*Christian Enquirer.*

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### HINTS TO SCHOOL-MASTERS.

" Be not sarcastic. Some teachers have a natural tendency to say things which cut through a boy's heart like a knife. A scholar makes some mistake ; instead of a simple reproof, comes a tone of ridicule. The boy feels wronged. One is stung into revengeful passion, another crushed with despair. I do not think a child should ever be mimicked, even for a drawling tone, without explaining beforehand that it is not for ridicule, but to show in what the fault consists ; while that scorching sarcasm which some teachers use, should be wholly abolished. It tends to call up bad passions, and to engender bad feelings in the child's mind towards the teacher and all that he does.

" A teacher, in order that he may exert a moral and spiritual influence, should be familiar and gentle. There is, no doubt, a dignity that is essential in the school-room, but it need not partake of *arrogance*. True dignity must always be connected with simplicity. Children are keen observers, and they either shrink from artificial austerity, or smile at it as absurd. A teacher who would walk about his school, with a *domineering* manner, might talk about moral and spiritual truth until he was weary, and do little good. To produce much good, a teacher must win the love and confidence of the children ; and to do this, he should, in his manners, be natural and gentle.



"So with the tone of the voice. If a teacher is sharp and crabbed in his speech, if he calls out with *dogmatical authority*, he shuts up the hearts of the scholars, and the spell is broken; they will not 'listen to the voice of the charmer, charm he ever so wisely.'"—*Advertiser*.

## SONG OF LIFE.

BY CHARLES MACKAY.

A traveller on the dusty road,  
 Strewed acorns on the lea:  
 And one took root, and sprouted up,  
 And grew into a tree.  
 Love sought its shades at evening time,  
 To breathe its early vows,  
 And age was pleased in heats of noon,  
 To bask beneath its boughs.  
 The dormouse loved its dangling twigs,  
 The birds sweet music bore,  
 It stood a glory in its place,  
 A blessing evermore.

A little spring had lost it way  
 Amid the grass and fern—  
 A passing stranger scooped a well,  
 Where weary men might turn:  
 He walled it in, and hung with care  
 A ladle on the brink;  
 He thought not of the deed he did,  
 But judg'd that toil might drink.  
 He passed again—and lo! the well,  
 By summers never dried,  
 Had cooled ten thousand parching tongues,  
 And saved a life beside.

A nameless man, amid a crowd  
 That thronged the daily mart,  
 Let fall a word of hope and love,  
 Unstudied, from the heart,  
 A whisper on the tumult thrown,  
 A transitory breath,  
 It raised a brother from the dust,  
 It saved a soul from death.  
 O, germ! O, fount! O, word of love!  
 O, thought at random cast!  
 Ye were but little at the first,  
 But mighty at the last.

## THE DEAD.

Some curious mind has been casting up the number of human births and deaths since our Saviour, eighteen hundred years ago, began his mission of mercy, in the far off land of despised Judea.

The average number of births per second, up to this time, has been eight hundred and fifteen. This, after deducting the present population of the world, (960,000,000,) leaves thirty-one thousand and fifty millions that have gone down to the grave. Of this number

9,000,000,000 have died in war !

7,920,000,000 by famine and pestilence !

500,000,000 by martyrdom !

580,000,000 by intoxicating drinks !

12,000,000,000 natural and otherwise !

## GEOGRAPHY.

We give, from the *Journal of Commerce*, the boundaries of several of the States and Territories, as settled by the recent acts of Congress. Teachers, having old maps of the United States, can, from the description, easily make the necessary alterations.

**CALIFORNIA.**—North by  $42^{\circ}$  N. lat. E. by Utah and New Mexico. Beginning at intersection  $42^{\circ}$  N. lat. and  $120^{\circ}$  W. long., then southerly along the latter, to  $39^{\circ}$  N. lat. ; then S. E. in a straight line to Colorado River at the point of its intersection with  $35^{\circ}$  N. lat., then by channel to the Mexican boundary. South by Mexico.

**UTAH.**—North by Oregon, from which  $42^{\circ}$  N. lat. divides it ; East by Rocky Mountains, which separate it from Indian Territory and New Mexico. South by New Mexico, from which  $37^{\circ}$  N. lat. separates it. West by California.

**NEW MEXICO.**—Begin at point in River Colorado, at its mouth, where the Mexican boundary crosses it, then easterly with said boundary line to the Rio Grande ; then follow the main channel of the Rio Grande to  $32^{\circ}$  N. lat. ; then east by said parallel to  $103^{\circ}$  W. long. (from Greenwich ; ) then north by that to  $38^{\circ}$  N. lat. : then west by that to the summit of Sierra Madre ; then south with the crest of the mountains, to  $37^{\circ}$  N. lat. ; then west by that to the boundary of California.

**TEXAS.**—West by the main channel of the Rio Grande, from its mouth to  $32^{\circ}$  N. lat. ; then east by that parallel to  $103^{\circ}$  W. long. ;

then north by that to 36° 30 min. N. lat. ; then east by that to 100° W. long. ; then south on that to Red River, and along that to Louisiana.

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## NOTHING NEW UNDER THE SUN.

In listening to addresses in schools, we have frequently heard the speaker attempt to encourage the parents and scholars, by the prospect of success in life, that some among them might live to be Presidents of the United States, Governors, Judges, &c. That the idea is not new, will appear from the following extract from Shenstone's poem, entitled "The School Mistress."

Yet nursed with skill, what dazzling fruits appear !  
 E'en now sagacious foresight points to show  
 A little bench of heedless bishops here,  
 And there a chancellor in embryo ;  
 Or bard sublime, if bard may e'er be so,  
 As Milton, Shakspeare, names that ne'er shall die !  
 Though now he crawl along the ground so low,  
 Nor weeting how the muse should soar on high,  
 Wisheth, poor starveling elf ! his paper kite may fly !

---

[Extract from the Report of H. H. Barney, on Schools of Cincinnati.]

## REASONS FOR HAVING BOTH SEXES ATTEND THE SAME HIGH SCHOOL.

The almost unprecedented success which has characterized the introduction of the Union School System into Ohio and the neighboring States, has conferred great importance upon the decision of the question respecting the expediency of bringing the sexes together in the school room. The question is one which admits of many reasonable doubts, even in the minds of those whose experience would seem to have settled the matter conclusively. Sides are taken on it by those of the best ability, and the purest intentions, and that too at extreme distances. Even those who strenuously advocate the utility of bringing the sexes together for the purpose of deriving therefrom additional stimulus for study, admit that the experiment should be tried guardedly—that the teacher under whose supervision they are to labor should be watchful, judicious, and lynx-eyed, to detect danger at a distance. They admit that the state of public morals may be such, that except under the most stringent regulations, the experiment would, in all probability, be a disastrous one. Whatever may be the intrinsic me-

rits of the affirmative or negative of this question, it is quite certain that mere external circumstances, which are liable to be quite different in different places, may make it very proper or very improper to mingle the sexes in the school room.— Provided the population of a town be large and compact enough to support a Union School, in which boys and girls may study and recite in the same room, the character of the teacher, the number of scholars, the arrangement of the rooms, play-grounds, etc., and the general moral bearing of the parents and pupils might render it highly improper for them to be mingled together, and *vice versa*.

To these varying and unmanageable circumstances we do not propose to turn our attention, but rather to some of the general principles which lie at the base of the question, and are the same at all times and in all places.

In answering this question to ourselves, we naturally inquire:—"Is there any fundamental difference in the constitution of the moral and mental faculties of the male and female being?" If the one is on a different plan from the other; if one possesses faculties or intellectual forces, entire and distinct, which have been denied to the other, or if they both possess faculties of the same kind but so modified in degree, that the training best calculated to develop the one, is not best calculated to develop the other, then certainly no advantage would be gained by attempting to educate them together, for it would be subjecting to the same process, things which are radically different, for the purpose of bringing about the same end.— Whatever transcendentalists may say about the essential distinction between the male and the female spirit, we believe that the great majority of enlightened individuals allow to both the same power of memory, of reason, of conscience, of imagination, and of will, and deny to the one the faculty which is not possessed by the other. They are both endowed with memory and reason, which are often of great value in the practical affairs of life: and of conscience, and imagination, and will, which are frequently quite useful. All these powers are to be developed and clothed with knowledge to perform the duties of human life, and we have not yet heard any one assert that the study of language, history, mathematics, etc. etc., makes the best preparation for the one, and not for the other. Without any further consideration on this part of the question, we shall take it for granted, that in the intellectual organization of the sexes, there exists no rational ground whatever, for devising radically different methods of training them, or for separating them during the process of school education. From this source, likewise, can be drawn no argument against their being educated apart: so that, so far as in-

tellect alone is concerned, it cannot be determined whether they would secure the best development separate or commingled.

If, then, there be no essential difference between the minds of males and females, so as to require different appliances for their development, we shall next inquire whether the practical duties of coming life, the future pursuits, vicissitudes, trials, etc. etc., require, on the part of the male, a cultivation of different faculties, or of the same faculties in a different way, from those of the female.

If the object of giving instruction to both sexes up to the period of choosing a profession, is simply to impart a limited and imperfect knowledge of those branches of learning which are indispensable to all, even to the lowest classes of enlightened beings; if it be to give a boy so much of arithmetical knowledge as will enable him to keep accounts, and to perform other numerical calculations required by the necessities of actual life, and to give to the girl so much as will enable her to keep the market bills, and reckon the cost of a new dress, etc.; if it be desirable during the days of their pupilage to impart to each, only so much of the different branches of knowledge as the experience of others has shown will be actually necessary in practice, then as the boy is to act in a different sphere from that of the girl, the acquirements most needful for his future success are not the acquirements most needful for the girl, and they are striving to attain different ends, there can be no advantage in bringing them together beyond that of mere convenience. But the mere acquisition of that knowledge, which shall be directly useful in practice alone, is not the great purpose which a well devised scheme of education seeks to secure. It labors after something higher and more enduring. Acquisitions in history, geography, arithmetic, grammar, etc., may lie unused, may slip from the memory and be lost in oblivion, but the training which the mental faculties received during the process of their acquirement, will not go with them. The reason, trained to strength and activity, the memory rendered ready and retentive, the imagination chastened and enriched; will remain through all the scenes of life. If the future man needs a knowledge of the structure of language, so does the future woman; if one needs to have the logical powers sharpened to pierce the difficulties which beset our pathway, so does the other. If one needs the wisdom of history, or of philosophy, or of mathematics, so does the other. Destined to pass through life together, and to share in its joys, in the performance of its duties, and in the endurance of its trials, they both need all the clearness which study can give to the judgment, and all the wealth which learning can bestow



upon the memory. Their wants are one. Up to the age of seventeen or eighteen, the means of mental cultivation are the same to both. The same teachers, the same text-books, the same habits of study and recitation, are required by both. If, then, what we have advanced above be true, no argument drawn from the nature of the human mind, and no consideration deduced from the different spheres in which the sexes act, can be adduced against the scheme of educating them together, if there be no reason why they should be educated separately. If there be any reasons why they should not study nor recite in the same room, these reasons must be drawn from the danger of attachments and connections being formed, which dash the best hopes of parents and blast the best prospects of the parties concerned—such things have happened in schools which were supposed to be conducted with the utmost care and foresight. We know of no reasons why the sexes should be shut up from each other, during their education, like monks and nuns of old, except those drawn from these considerations, and these all disappear when a teacher of calm judgment and vigilant eye, presides over the school, assisted by an arrangement of rooms, play-grounds, etc., suited to the composition of his pupils.

Whenever the sexes are brought together in the study or recitation room, under influences suitable to restrain each within proper sphere, who has not witnessed the increased harmony, the greater exercise of mental effort, the impulse given to every noble aspiration, and the corresponding check imposed upon every thing rude and coarse.

Nevertheless, theories, however well founded and beautiful, cannot carry with them the weight of influence which follows the successful trial of a single experiment. We will, therefore, introduce the testimony of individuals under whose supervision the experiment has been made.

Mr. J. H. Shaw, Chairman of the School Committee, in Nantucket, Mass., thus writes us in regard to the High School in that place :

"Both sexes attend it, sit in the same room, recite together in the same classes, and pursue the same studies, as they do in all the schools—thus growing up together, and as we believe, much better prepared to live happily as men and women, later in life, than they would be if separated in childhood."

Mr. A. Morse, Principal of the above school, thus writes :

"Both sexes attend the same High School, recite in the same classes, and sit in the same room, when reciting. They enter the room at different doors, have separate yards for exercise, are separated from each other while in the school room by an isle, four feet in width, and sit on different benches while re-

citing. I know of no disadvantages resulting from this arrangement, when the discipline and order of the school are of the right character. The advantages are essentially the same as realized from female influence in the subsequent periods of life."

Mr. A. Parish, of the Springfield, (Mass.) High School, thus writes:

"Both sexes attend the same school, sit in the same school room, and recite in the same classes. They are not allowed to associate, or engage, in any way, in amusements together, or do anything which would be unbecoming young persons of their age, in genteel company. They are under such discipline, and so much under the eye of their teachers, that no complaint has ever been made, or objection raised by parents. The advantages in favor of this feature are many and great; and an experience of fifteen years, in three schools, (of some note,) in which I have been engaged in that time, tends to *confirm* my favorable opinion, that it is the *true mode*. The manners of boys may be softened and their character refined—their self-respect cultivated by the mere presence of the other sex. Girls may be taught to avoid that species of coyishness to which a majority, perhaps are subject—of speaking without embarrassment, when they should, while they increase not a whit in that unbecoming boldness, rudeness I may say, which is so repulsive in the other sex. Indeed, my experience leads me to believe that there is no place so favorable under the judicious management of the teacher, to cure a hoydenish girl as where she is made to feel that she is *observed* and *estimated* in all her movements by a large number of both sexes. But the great argument is—children are to be educated for future intercourse in society. Is not this one of the *first* and most *important* they can be called upon to learn and practice? The teacher is *in loco parentis*—and the school only a large family—if what it should be—organized for the specific purpose of establishing right principles of action, and preparing the child in ALL RESPECTS for the sober realities of the future. Until the course of nature is changed, and all shall be brothers without sisters, or sisters without brothers, in the same family, my opinion will remain, I think, unchanged. One important *condition*, however, is *indispensable*. Success depends almost wholly on the *sound judgment*, *good taste* and *tact* of the teacher, to direct the movement of the school. The teacher *MUST be qualified* for his post, or he may be the cause of infinite mischief by either *neglect* or *misjudged action*"



## THE GRAMMAR OF ENGLISH GRAMMARS ;

WITH AN INTRODUCTION HISTORICAL AND CRITICAL.

The whole methodically arranged and amply illustrated, with forms of correcting and of parsing, improprieties for correction, examples for parsing, questions for examination, exercises for writing, observations for the advanced student, decisions and proofs for the settlement of disputed points, occasional strictures and defences, an exhibition of the several methods of Analysis, and a Key to the Oral Exercises ; to which are added four Appendixes pertaining separately to the four parts of Grammar, by Gould Brown, author of the Institutes of English Grammar, the First Lines of English Grammar, &c. This day published by S. S. & W. WOOD, 261 Pearl-st. New York.

NOTE.—The above was sent to us as an advertisement, to be inserted and paid for. The work deserves a more formal notice. Mr. Brown's duodecimo Grammar has always had a high reputation.—The present is a thick octavo volume, the work of the labor of many years, and contains a mass of information in relation to our language and its laws. As a digest of authorities and criticisms, it should be in our school libraries, where teachers might have access to it.

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The Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools will probably be published in the February and March numbers of our Journal.—We hope to be able to publish the proceedings of the Rhode Island Agricultural Society, as an Appendix to one of our numbers.

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☞ The Rhode Island Educational Magazine will be published monthly. All pamphlets, exchange papers, or communications, should be addressed to E. R. POTTER, Providence, R. I. Letters (post paid) may be directed to Providence, or Kingston.

# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

VOL. 1. PROVIDENCE, FEB. AND MARCH, 1852. NOS. 2 & 3.

## REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

TO THE HONORABLE GENERAL ASSEMBLY :

The subscriber herewith presents the abstracts of the returns of the Public Schools, for the year ending May, A. D. 1851.

By these returns it appears that the number of children attending school was—

Males	-	-	-	-	-	14,133
Females	-	-	-	-	-	12,521
Total	-	-	-	-	-	26,654

The amount of money received and expended, was—

Received from the State Treasury,	\$35,167 59
Raised by towns,	55,488 69
Raised by assessments on scholars,	10,075 39
Received from the registry tax which is } appropriated by law to schools,	6,327 30
Unexpended of last year's money,	3,235 17
Total,	\$110,294 14

Expended for support of schools, \$94,471 96

It further appears that there was expended for the erection and repairs of school houses during that year, \$23,902 80.

Of the thirty-one townships into which the State is divided, four, viz: Providence, Newport, Bristol and Warren, are not

divided into corporate districts, and in these the whole management of the schools is under the care of the town's committees, or superintendents.

One town, viz : East Greenwich, is divided into districts, but the school houses were provided for all the districts at the expense of the town under the provision of law authorizing it.

The remainder of the towns are divided into districts which by the law are authorized to organize themselves as corporate bodies, and nearly all of the districts have availed themselves of this right, and regulate their own affairs, subject to such rules and regulations as may be made by the town's committees.

It will also appear from the returns, that nearly all these districts have school houses belonging to the district as their corporate property. Very few of the districts now depend upon the old proprietors' school houses. In many cases they have been purchased by the district and repaired. The work of building and repairing is still going on, and every year adds to the number of good comfortable school houses in our country districts.

The whole number of teachers employed in the public schools for the year ending May, 1851, was—

Males,	-	-	-	-	256
Females,	-	-	-	-	313
Total,	-	-	-	-	569

It is gratifying to perceive from the returns, that the prejudice which formerly existed against the employment of female teachers, seems to be dying away. The same result has been experienced in other States. In Massachusetts, the number of female teachers employed, increased from 3,591, in 1837, to 4,997 in 1845. If school officers and parents support the schools as they ought, female teachers would find no difficulty in governing them.\*

\*NOTE—The following excellent remarks of Bishop Potter, on the advantages of employing female teachers, are from the "School and School Master."

*Frequent change of Teachers.*—This is a subject of almost universal complaint.—The evil arose, at first, from the fact that schools were kept open but a part of each year; and more recently, it has resulted from the prevailing practice of hiring male teachers in winter, and females in summer.

It is impossible to overrate the evils of such a course. The business of education is essentially progressive. It consists of a series of processes, the latter depending upon the earlier, and requiring, therefore, to be conducted, within certain limits, on the same principles, and by the same methods. But, in the present state of our schools hardly any two teachers have the same methods. No opportunity is afforded the one who succeeds to become acquainted with the state of the school, and with the methods of his predecessor, by actual observation. The one has gone, before the other arrives. He enters the school, a stranger to the children and to their parents,

## DEAF AND DUMB.

The following are the names of the persons who have received the benefit of the appropriation from its commencement :

		Age when admitted.	Entered.	Left.
Fanny Lamphear,	Hopkinton,	26,	May, 1845,	May, 1846.
Abigail Slocum,	Portsmouth,	25,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
Peleg Slocum,	Portsmouth,	20,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
Mary E. Slocum,	Portsmouth,	14,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
James Budlong,	Warwick,	20,	Aug. 1845.	May, 1847.
Charles H. Steere,	Glocester,	15,	May, 1846,	May, 1850.
Phebe A. Winsor,	Johnston,	8,	May, 1846.	
John W. Davenport,	Tiverton,	13,	May, 1847.	
Samuel W. Thompson,	Glocester,	11,	May, 1847.	
Mary E. Tanner,	Coventry,	10,	May, 1847.	
Minerva Mowry,	Smithfield,	13,	May, 1848,	May, 1851.
Samuel G. Greene,	Hopkinton,	11,	July, 1849,	Aug. 1851.
George Gavit,	Westerly,	10,	May, 1850.	

The orders on the General Treasurer for their support have been—

June 27, 1846,	\$479 17
August 21, 1847,	600 00
June 30, 1848,	450 00
January 28, 1850,	933 33
January 21, 1851,	700 00
Decem. 21, 1851,	625 00
Total,	<hr/> \$3,787 50

unacquainted with the relative prosperity and aptitude of the different scholars, ignorant of the course which was pursued by former teachers, and with the prospect, probably, of retiring himself, at the end of three or four months. Is it not evident that the progress of the school must be arrested, until he can learn his position? As each teacher is apt to be tenacious of his own system, is it not also evident that after having arrested the work which his predecessor began, he will in many cases, proceed to undo it? Thus the children will often spend the whole period of his stay, in retracing their studies in a new book, or according to a new method. There will be movement, but no progress.

The effect, on the teacher, must be equally bad. This practice makes him, in truth, little better than a vagrant. He can have no fixed residence, since the period for which he engages is never over a year and rarely over four months; and even, in these cases, it is liable to be curtailed by the caprice of his employers or the arbitrary interference of the trustees. He of course cannot marry. He has little ambition to form a character; his employment occupies without improving him; and, in most cases, he either hastens to leave it, or becomes a contented but useless drone. Can we wonder that there are few good teachers under such a system.

Is there any remedy for such an evil? We believe there is. The apology for this constant change is, that the district cannot support a good male teacher, throughout the year. They must either close the school during the summer or have it taught by a female. Then we say, let it be taught by a female throughout the year. The



The beneficiaries of this State have been sent to the "American Asylum at Hartford, for the Education and Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb." The time for admission of pupils is the third Wednesday of September, in every year. The charge is \$100 per annum. In case of sickness, extra charges are made. Persons applying for admission, must be between the ages of eight and twenty-five years; must be of good natural intellect, capable of forming and joining letters with a pen legibly and correctly; free from immoralities of conduct and from contagious disease. The charge for board includes washing, fuel, lights, stationery and tuition. No deductions are made for absence, except on account of sickness.

sum which is now divided between the two teachers would pay a female handsomely for the whole year, and thus supersede the necessity of closing the school at all, except for a vacation of three or four weeks.

The advantages of the course would be various. 1st. It would give to the scholars the advantage of having the same instructress throughout one entire year at least; and if she proved worthy of the charge, she could hardly fail during that time so to enlist the affections of the children, the good will of the parents and the confidence of the trustees, as to be secure of a renewed engagement. Thus we should gradually return to the good old practice of permanent schools, under permanent instructors.

2d. It would be a cheap system. The best qualified female teachers in common schools, would be glad to accept what is now paid to men of the poorest capacity.

3d. It would secure teachers of higher intellectual capacity and qualification.—Women have a native tact in the management of very young minds, which is rarely possessed by men. The prospect also of permanent employment at a fair rate of compensation, would induce many young women of narrow means to prepare themselves for teaching; and it will hardly be disputed that with limited opportunities as to time and money, they would make greater proficiency in knowledge and the art of teaching, than young men having only the same opportunities. It should be considered also that the prospect of profitable employment would awaken competition, and in this way higher qualifications would be secured.

4th. It would furnish a desirable resource and a useful as well as respectable mode of life to many females, who are cast upon the world without property.

5th. It would conduce to the improvement of manners and morals in schools, since females attach more importance to these than men: and they have a peculiar power of awakening the sympathies of children, and inspiring them with a desire to excel.

6th. It would diminish the number of select schools, since many of these are taught by women, whose services would then be required in common schools; and these schools would also be less necessary, than at present, for very young children.

But can you propose, seriously (some one will say,) that timid and delicate women should retain charge, through the winter, of country schools, in which large and rude boys are congregated?

This forms the only objection, which can be plausibly urged against this plan, and it is one which deserves full and respectful consideration. I would remark in regard to it,

1st. That it is by no means so formidable as it might appear at first thought. It is now admitted that in the government of schools, moral influence should be substituted, as far as possible, in place of mere coercion, and that corporeal punishment should be reserved for young children, and be applied but very rarely even to them. It is admitted, too, that the teacher ought to aim, first of all, to cultivate the higher sentiments of our nature, to awaken self-respect, and to induce the child to become a law to himself. If this be true (and few will be disposed to question it,) then it must follow that women, are in most respects, pre-eminently qualified to administer such a discipline. Their very delicacy and helplessness give them a peculiar claim to deference and respectful consideration; and this claim large boys, who are as-

## THE BLIND.

The following persons have received the benefit of our State appropriation for the blind :—

		Entered.	Left.
William Hatch,	Bristol,	January, 1845,	
Oliver Caswell,	Jamestown,	January, 1845,	January, 1851.
Elizabeth Eddy,	Warren,	January, 1845,	January, 1848.
Charles Coddington,	Newport,	March, 1846,	
Maria Dunham,	Newport,	March, 1846,	
Marcia Thurber,	Providence,	June, 1846,	June, 1847.
Alexander Kenyon,	S. Kingstown,	October, 1847,	
William Tallowfield,	Providence,	Novem. 1849,	Novem. 1850.
James H. Graham,	Newport,	May, 1850.	
Elizabeth Dennely,	S. Kingstown,	October, 1851.	

The payments on account have been—

June	13, 1848,	\$1,100 00
February	15, 1850,	950 00
December	1, 1851,	1,500 00
Total,		\$3,550 00

The beneficiaries of this State have heretofore been sent to the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind, at Boston. The charge at that Institution is \$160 per annum, which covers board, washing, medicine, use of books, musical instruments, and all expenses except clothing and travelling expenses. Pupils must be under fifteen when ad-

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piring to be men, can hardly fail to recognize. I need not add that they are honorably distinguished from the other sex by warm affections, by greater faith in human nature, and in its capacity for good, and by disinterested and untiring zeal in behalf of objects that they love. Says the present chief magistrate of this State, (Gov. Seward of New York,) "He it seems to me is a dull observer, who has not learned that it was the intention of the Creator to commit to them a higher and greater portion of responsibility in the education of youth of both sexes. They are the natural guardians of the young. Their abstraction from the engrossing cares of life affords them leisure both to acquire and communicate knowledge. From them the young more willingly receive it, because the severity of discipline is relieved with greater tenderness and affections, while their more quick apprehension, enduring patience, expansive benevolence, higher purity, more delicate taste, and elevated moral feeling, qualify them for excellence in all departments of learning, except, perhaps the exact sciences. If this be true, how many a repulsive, bigoted, and indolent professor will, in the general improvement of education, be compelled to resign his claim to modest, assiduous and affectionate woman. And how many conceited pretenders, who may wield the rod in our common schools, without the knowledge of human nature requisite for its discreet exercise, too indolent to improve, and too proud to discharge their responsible duties, will be driven to seek subsistence elsewhere." —*School and Schoolmaster.*

"A man may keep a difficult school by means of authority and physical force: a woman can do it only by dignity of character, affection, and such a superiority in attainment, as is too conspicuous to be questioned.—*Horace Mann.*"



mitted, and of good character ; free from epilepsy or any contagious disease ; and the friends of the applicant are required to answer certain queries respecting his age, and the cause and degree of his blindness, and to furnish an obligation that when discharged he shall be removed without expense to the Institution. If possible, pupils should be taught the letters before going to the Institution. Books in raised letters for the blind, can be procured there.

## IDIOTS AND IMBECILES.

The only person who has yet received the benefit of this appropriation, is James Lee, of Providence. The sum of \$200 has been paid to the Institution at Boston, for his support from October, 1850, to October, 1852, by an order on our Treasury, dated December 21, 1851. Two others have lately been placed upon the list, but no payments yet made on their account.

Appended to this report will be found the number of the Insane, Idiots, Deaf and Dumb, and Blind, in every town, taken from the census. The number of these, however, as reported by Thomas R. Hazard, Esq., who, under authority of the Legislature, examined into the subject, is much greater, viz :

Number of Insane in the State,	282
Idiots,	136
Blind,	60
Deaf and Dumb,	64

Of the insane and idiots, Mr. Hazard found one half in the condition of paupers, dependent upon the towns for support.— But it is believed that even Mr. Hazard's enumeration is not complete. Families are sometimes unwilling to have misfortunes like these exposed to the public. The census takers, perhaps, do not always enquire for them, and sometimes their enquiries may have been evaded.

The thorough revision and codification of our School laws made the past year, it is believed will have a very favorable effect. The principal changes are such as are calculated to facilitate the collection of school taxes, and to remove doubts and ambiguities which had arisen relating to construction.— The ambiguity of some provisions, and the difficulty of collecting a tax, were calculated to produce frequent lawsuits, and these often led to frequent quarrels in a district, resulting in great injury to the schools. It is believed, that under the new law, there will be less opportunity for these hereafter.—

Otherwise the new law is principally a condensing and consolidation of the old ones.

Although in revising our school laws, we have had the benefit of several years experience under our last law, and of the suggestions and criticisms of many friends of education in different parts of the State, and it was for two years before the Legislature, examined by committees and amended at various times by both houses, yet we are not to expect perfection in it. It seems almost impossible for human ingenuity to frame a law which shall be free from all ambiguity. The law is necessarily a long one, resulting from the various circumstances of different sections of the State, for all of which it was necessary to provide; but the index accompanying it is believed to be very complete, so that any one may find any part of it without difficulty. The law, in conformity to a resolution of the Legislature, was immediately published. It was accompanied with very full notes and remarks on the duties of different officers under it, and the proper manner of performing them, and with forms for transacting all ordinary school business. It is believed that these remarks and forms have been, and will continue to be, the means of preventing much litigation.

The provision in the law by which the Commissioner is authorized to hear appeals and decide disputed cases, has also tended materially to diminish the number of lawsuits. These cases of appeal have been quite numerous, and have been decided as the law requires, without cost to the parties. The members of the bar have rendered important service to the cause of education, by discouraging litigation in cases growing out of the school law.

A revision of our general law for the assessing and collection of taxes, would contribute much towards preventing of difficulties in school districts.

Many of the towns have appointed superintendents, or some one person to perform the duty of visiting the schools. This duty, if divided among a large committee, is seldom attended to: and even if not neglected, it cannot be so well done as by a single person.

By a provision in our new law, school committees are authorized to cause their reports to be printed. It is desirable that the committee in every town should avail themselves of this right. A full statement of the expenditures of school moneys, an account of all the schools, with remarks upon the school houses, the teachers, their qualifications and mode of teaching, should be printed and placed in every dwelling house in the town. It would tend to keep up interest in the schools,

and to awaken interest in some quarters where they are now neglected.

## MEANS OF IMPROVING THE SCHOOLS.

It is interesting to look back upon the condition of our schools a few years ago, and consider what a great change has been wrought amongst us. A few years since, we were in a state of comparative indifference to education—at least a large portion of the community was so. Now, we see everywhere the evidences of increasing interest. Nearly all our villages and the greater part of our country districts have been supplied with new and improved school houses. Efforts are generally made to secure better qualified teachers, and meetings of teachers and of parents are held to aid and encourage each other in this good work.

But of all the means designed to promote the cause of sound education, there is none more important than the improvement of the teachers themselves. We may build fine school houses and collect the children together in them. If the teacher is not what he ought to be, all previous trouble and expense is thrown away. They will be as a body without a soul. On the other hand, we may have poor school houses and a poor and uneducated people; send the good teacher among them, and his influence is soon felt. As is the teacher, so is the school.

It is a serious truth, that there are many sections of our country, and perhaps some districts in all parts of the State, where the great body of the people do not seem to know the difference between a poor school and a good one. They have been so long taught by the dunces who have been sent among us from abroad, and who took a school because they could do nothing else, or came here to keep school because they could not get one where they were better known, that they have no idea of anything better than what they have been used to.

Now what is wanted in such places? First of all, there must be a feeling of deficiency, and a desire to improve. Then they should not only choose a good school committee, but should let them understand that they are to be supported in making strict examinations, in rejecting the poor teachers—however many friends they may have—and in raising the standard of qualification. There are some powers belonging to school committees, such as settling of district boundaries, location of school houses, &c., about the exercise of which, there may be an allowable difference of opinion: but, about

this, the requiring of strict examinations, there should be but one opinion. Even when there is a well qualified committee, difficulty frequently arises from their endeavouring to accommodate themselves to circumstances and the state of popular feeling, from lowering the standard to suit some particular district where the candidate proposes to keep. Of course, discretion is always to be used, but it were as well, perhaps better, that some of our country districts should have been without schools for years, than be taught by such teachers as they have had—teachers who could only make stupidity more stupid.

Teachers themselves for the credit of their profession, should mark and discountenance the dunces and quacks who dishonor it.

The means of improving in the art of teaching have been so multiplied within a few years, that there is now but little excuse for committees or trustees in employing incompetent teachers, or, for the teachers themselves in not improving.—We have no Normal School it is true, but we have numerous High Schools and Academies. And then we have the Teachers' Institute, where for a week or more at a time, they may receive instruction without money and without price, from the most able instructors of this and other States. The State pays for the instruction, the inhabitants of the villages generously entertain them. Our best teachers generally attend as many of these meetings as they can find time for. It is a pleasure as well as profit to them. Yet, although held in all parts of the State and almost brought to their very doors, there is a large number of teachers who never attend any. If they are poor teachers, they will probably remain so. Poor they may be in worldly goods; they will probably remain so. Heaven helps those who help themselves.

I shall devote a portion of this report to considering what teachers may do to improve themselves, and what they may do to improve the community around them. Some of the topics may be trite, yet it is a subject which needs and justifies repetition and on which too much cannot be said.

The teacher should not think that he is doing his duty by merely spending the allotted time in the school room and hearing recitations in their prescribed order. To make a good teacher requires considerable energy of character, and he who has it not should endeavor to cultivate and acquire it. Without it, he cannot succeed in teaching or in any other business. He should put his whole soul into his business, whatever it is for the time being. Whatever his hands find to do, he should do it with all his might. By applying himself energetically



to any pursuit, even if it be a merely temporary one, he is cultivating habits and acquiring a force of character which will not only contribute to his happiness but to his success in all future pursuits. And by going through the routine of a school drowsily, and as if it was a mere task that he wishes to get rid of as speedily as possible, he is acquiring habits which will surely prevent success in future undertakings.

A teacher should devote himself to his work heartily and with enthusiasm and energy, if he were to consider only his chances for pecuniary success in life. 'The greater part of our teachers are looking to some other employment a few years hence for a livelihood. They follow teaching a few years and then take up some other business or profession. For opportunities of getting into business they have to depend mostly on their previous reputation. And if a young man has been a teacher and has shown a listlessness and carelessness about his business, no desire to improve himself and no capacity to benefit his scholars, if he has been a poor teacher, it will be a very poor recommendation to those who might be willing to employ him in other business. He who from the causes I have mentioned, is unsuccessful as a teacher, will probably prove unsuccessful from the same causes in every thing else.

One of the most distinguished men of Rhode Island in a discourse a few years ago observed, that "no teacher is fit to have a scholar unless he is able to make his mark upon him."\* There is so much meaning condensed into this short sentence that it might serve as a text for a long discourse.

A temptation which especially besets a good teacher—one who is desirous of improving, is the tendency to adopt some particular theory or mode of teaching, to the exclusion of all others—in other words, to have a *hobby*. Some degree of energy and enthusiasm is absolutely necessary to constitute a good teacher, but the very possession of this enthusiasm without considerable discretion and judgment, will sometimes prove a stumbling block in the way of a teacher's usefulness. They have seen that there is a defect in some old mode of teaching—they have perhaps been in some school where some particular mode of teaching was practiced with good effect. It becomes a favorite with them, and without allowing for difference of circumstances, they adopt it at all times and places; they make a hobby of it.

This is particularly to be guarded against, and especially at the present day, when the public attention has been aroused to the subject of education and the community in consequence

\*Dr. Wayland.

swarms with theorists and book makers, who take advantage of the excitement for their own interest, and whose interest it is in too many cases, to run down old modes and usages, substituting newer, but not better ones.

A good teacher when he goes into a district which has been blessed with a good school, and where the people understand and appreciate its advantages, may find perhaps for awhile, little more to do than to continue on in the course already marked out. But even here, constant exertion is necessary. In the best districts, zeal for the interests of education will occasionally decline. Human nature is so constituted, that we seldom properly appreciate those advantages which we constantly enjoy. We must be occasionally deprived of them, or we must see the condition of others who do not enjoy them and be able to compare it with our own, in order to realize their value.

In a large portion of our districts, the good teacher finds that there is so much to be done, that it requires a great deal of discretion to know how to commence his work. By undertaking too much, he often defeats his purpose. But if he has the proper degree of zeal tempered with judgment, he can do a great deal. For those who desire to be useful in their day and generation, and who do not make the profession a mere matter of money, the opportunities of doing good will be constantly occurring. The field of labor is vast, and it will always remain open. For each new generation the same work is to be done.

Perhaps in a great many districts which have not been highly favored, the good teacher can best commence the work of reform by letting the people see the difference between a good teacher and a poor one. There are too many of our districts where the people have no knowledge of what a good teacher can do. They have got the notion that almost anybody can teach small children, and that any blockhead is fit to teach A, B, C. Among all the errors on the subject of education, there is none more fatal. Now, here let the good teacher show his capacity. He may have a poor house and but few scholars and many other discouragements to contend with. But let him show the people what a good teacher can do, and he will find them gradually beginning to sympathise with him. Our people are a shrewd, sensible people, and they only want to be convinced that there is a real improvment, that there is something in it, (to use the common phrase,) and they will join in the movement and aid it along. Let a teacher once establish his influence in this way, by showing them that he is a good teacher, that he deserves their confidence, and every thing else is easy of accomplishment.



But the teacher can do very little without the co-operation of the parents in his district. If from any cause they are opposed to the school, he can do nothing; if they are merely indifferent or careless, he can do but little, compared with what he can effect if he has their hearty co-operation and support.— And this certainly is an object worth some pains and labor on his part.

When there was no school system, the whole responsibility of supporting a school was thrown upon the parents in a neighborhood. At the proper season they were obliged to consult, and meet, and negotiate about the teacher and the school, and the means of supporting them. True, the duty was often neglected. But parents in such cases felt that the responsibility was on them.

Now we have a system established by law. The State comes in by its officers and provides a teacher and a school, and supplies in some cases a part, in some, all of the funds for its support. And a large portion of the people, finding a school provided without any trouble or effort of their own, contract the habit of looking upon it with indifference, as if it was something with which they had nothing to do, or rather, as if it were something they felt safe and justified in shifting the responsibility of on to other people's shoulders, the trustees, committees, &c.

But a teacher can do a great deal himself towards awakening a proper spirit in the parents in his district. He should try to cultivate the acquaintance of all of them, consult with them about the studies, the characters, and interests of their children.

The old system of boarding around had at least this advantage, that it of necessity as it were, brought about an acquaintance between the teachers and parents. And to some teachers, who are modest and reserved, and unused to society, and have not the faculty of making acquaintances, this might be a real good. At all events, the teacher should avoid confining his intimacy to a few, whoever they may be, for every district has its family jealousies, its political quarrels, its religious or irreligious variances, jealousies of trade and jealousies arising from difference in property; and it will be most unfortunate for the school, if the teacher by favoring any one set incurs the displeasure of another.

Sometimes, if one set of men get the power and hire a teacher, it is a sufficient reason for the other party to find fault with him. The teacher cannot be too careful in such a case. It will require some knowledge of the world, of human passions, and weaknesses; and if he has it not, he must learn it, however hard and disagreeable the acquisition of it may be.

The teacher may then, by proper means, secure the influence of the parents in his favor ; and if he does, he will find his task comparatively easy and his burden light. The discipline of the school, which to a young and inexperienced teacher, is always the most trying part of his labors, depends greatly upon the parents. If the parents listen to and encourage the complaints of the children, it makes hard work for the teacher ; and the parents, or rather the children, are themselves the losers. For if a large portion of the teacher's time is taken up in keeping in order a set of unruly boys, that time is taken from their instruction, and the teacher's mind is wearied and fretted, and unfitted for the proper discharge of his duties. If, on the other hand, after taking pains to get a good teacher, instead of looking out for faults, they would let the children know that if they received one whipping at school they should receive another at home, the discipline of the school would be made easy.

Upon this subject of co-operation of parents in supporting the school, too much cannot be said. It is a serious, solemn duty. We have been so much accustomed in arguing in favor of a system of public instruction, to address ourselves to mere motives of interest, by holding out to parents that a good education would tend to the worldly advancement of their children, and that it would save the pockets of the people so many dollars and cents now paid for the conviction and punishment of crime, that we have overlooked the question of duty.

So much has been done within a few years past towards establishing systems of education in all the States, and such is the disposition every where manifested to look to the State for the education of the child, that some of the best friends of education in the Union have considered the tendency a dangerous one. God has established the parental relation ; he has placed upon the parent the responsibility for the bringing up of the child in the way it should go : but they too easily fall in with the fashion of the day, which is to throw upon the State all care, all responsibility, not only for the secular education, but for the moral training of the child. But granting that there is this tendency and this danger, it is one from which the old system or no-system was not free ; and we should meet and counteract it by the most strenuous and ever continuing efforts ; the teacher in the school and the teacher in the pulpit, and the friends of education everywhere, should constantly inculcate the duty of the parent to educate the child.

## STUDIES AND OBJECT OF EDUCATION.

A teacher can do a great deal with his scholars to make the school pleasant as well as profitable to them, and to excite in them a love for study and for acquiring information. Besides attending to the ordinary studies which are pursued in our schools, and which are absolutely necessary in any system of education, he can from time to time, and without interfering with regular studies, communicate to them much information which will be useful to them in after life. He may make them acquainted with the modes of carrying on the business of the world, the different trades, the various modes of making notes, receipts, accounts, &c. &c., so much of physiology as to enable them to guard against sudden wounds and accidents.

Again, the children in our schools are educating not for themselves or for their parents only, but they are to sustain relations to society at large. They are, perhaps, some, or all of them, to be in the course of their lives, town officers, magistrates, jurors, judges, ministerial officers of the law and perhaps, law makers. Yet no knowledge of this sort is conveyed to the children in most of our schools, although the existence and good government of our republic depends upon it. But they are left to pick it up little by little as they go through life. Now, a teacher in a few occasional lessons may convey a great deal of information which will be of use to them afterwards. He might also inform them of the different classes of crimes and the punishments provided for them by law, and of the various legal rights pertaining to the various relations of life. In all this sort of knowledge so necessary in a free government, children generally get no instruction in the schools. Yet how much better fitted to discharge their duties as citizens, and how many troubles and misfortunes might be avoided, were they better and earlier taught. Men may acquire a great deal of this knowledge as they rub along through life, at meetings, at courts, &c. But females are shut out from these opportunities. They are generally completely ignorant of their legal rights: and the consequences are often serious to their interest and happiness.

I am no advocate for crowding a great variety of studies into a school, or attempting to teach too much. But while in some schools, perhaps enough of this collateral information, as it may be called, is already given, there are others, as we all know, where nothing at all is done but to hear lessons recited by rote from the spelling book, the geography and grammar.

There is no doubt too that in a great many cases children are shut up in school at too early an age. Their intellectual training is begun and carried on in advance of and out of all proportion to the physical and the moral. Dr. Johnson once inquired what became of all the clever children.

There is more of this hurrying of education with us than among other nations, and it results from the circumstances of the country and the character of our people. A man here has finished his education and begun the practice of some trade or profession at an age when in the old countries he would be just leaving school for college. He is thrown upon the world early and upon his own energies for support, and this no doubt leads to or at least encourages the forcing system which we are so apt to pursue with the youth of America.

In deciding upon the number of studies and the amount of information to be given, circumstances and the discretion of the teacher must govern. We can lay down no invariable rules. But we may be guided in the exercise of this discretion by considering the object and design of education.

What then is the aim of education, or rather what *should* it be? What does the parent—not every parent—but the wise and judicious parent wish his children to be? We should consider what is his destination or object of life upon earth—what is to be his destiny for eternity. We may probably sum it up by saying that the object should be to make him a useful and respectable member of society and to cultivate such habits and give him such information as will make him as happy here as the conditions of a world of trial and probation allow, and happy in the life to come. With the Romans and the ancients generally, the idea of education was to make a citizen useful to the State, and every thing was made subservient to this. Modern civilization under the influence of Christianity, teaches us to consider the happiness of the individual as well as the good of society and to extend our aim beyond the present world.

In this view, or in any view in fact which we may take of the subject, strength of mind should be regarded as one of the great objects of education. While the communication of information is one object, we should not forget that another and not less important—perhaps the most important, is to discipline the mind, to learn the scholar to think for himself, to habituate him to meet and overcome difficulties; and that



it is only the knowledge which is well digested and made his own that is of much use to him. We may smooth down the difficulties of learning, explain every thing and communicate a great deal of knowledge, but unless the child's mind is set to work and exercised in the process, the knowledge will be lost nearly as soon as acquired. And it will even be worse than useless, for the child will be acquiring habits of mind, which will unfit it for intellectual exertion afterwards.

"The History of England," says Sir Walter Scott, speaking of the modern practice of attempting to render every thing easy and amusing to children, "is now reduced to a game at cards. \* \* \* There wants but one step further and the creed and the ten commandments may be taught in the same way. \* \* \* It may in the mean time be a subject of serious consideration, whether those who are accustomed only to acquire instruction through the medium of amusement, may not be brought to reject that which approaches under the aspect of study, &c."

One of our objects, then, should be to produce mental power, and to teach them how to apply this power. The well educated man should be capable of concentrating all the powers of his mind upon any subject he undertakes, however difficult. And to this end, for those who can afford the time and the expense, there is nothing to be compared with mathematics or the *dead* languages. I say the *dead* languages, for the very objection to the modern languages, considered as a means of discipline, is that they can be acquired with very little labor. For those who cannot afford the time or expense of these, the best substitutes must be adopted the nature of the case admits of. A good drilling in arithmetic (in this light) is invaluable. We should use the scholar to pursue hard studies, studies which are not pleasing in themselves, but which he is to look upon as a stepping stone, a necessary preliminary to understanding or excelling in other studies. The scholar who is habituated to meet and overcome difficulties, will find his future studies rendered pleasant and easy by it.

Of the two, if I must go to either extreme, give me the young man who has by studies difficult but of no immediate utility, well disciplined his mind, increased his powers and acquired the faculty of directing them, in preference to one who comes from school or from college crammed with learning upon the easy system. I could not hesitate as to my

opinion which would most certainly succeed in life or which would make the most useful member of society.

But it does not necessarily follow that we should go to the extreme of either system. Without interfering with the ordinary studies a teacher may relieve the tediousness of school hours by occasionally devoting a few moments to exercises of the sort I have mentioned, and in such a way as to make it a relaxation and a pleasant change from severer studies.

I have spoken of some of the means by which a teacher may make himself useful to his school and to the community. The life of the faithful teacher is at best a laborious one. He needs for his own support a strong sense of duty to sustain him in his trials. He who without a sense of duty looks to interest alone and who merely thinks of getting a living for a year or two, until he can find more profitable business, will seldom succeed. He has no motive to improve.

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## NORMAL SCHOOL.

In considering the means of improving our teachers, we should not omit the subject of a Normal School.

By a Normal School is generally understood a school or academy for the education of teachers with a special view to teaching; and with provision in most of them for the gratuitous instruction of such as intend to make a business of teaching.

This name, (says Mr. Barnard,) was first used in Austria, and was applied to schools where young men received a practical education as teachers by being employed as assistants in the school, and at the same time received lectures on the principles and practice of teaching. The same name was applied in France and is used in England and this country to designate seminaries for the education of teachers, sometimes with and sometimes without a practical school attached to them.

To the Austrian system it has been objected that its tendency is to perpetuate old errors, ancient modes of instruction; and to the teachers' seminaries as sometimes conducted it has been objected that the education given was of such a nature as to render the teacher discontented with his situa-



tion and compensation, and unwilling to teach in the ordinary schools.

A well qualified teacher, and one who intends to make a business of it, will be desirous of permanent employment.— This the greater part of our country districts, where schools are kept only a portion of the year, cannot give him.

One of our greatest difficulties in regard to the subject of a Normal School arises from the very freedom of our institutions and the newness of our country. In Europe where society is permanently divided into various ranks and there is but little opportunity for a man to change the situation or mode of life to which he happens to be born, the teacher's profession is generally taken up as a business for life. He has little prospect or hope of change. The governments can therefore exert themselves to improve the condition and qualifications of the teacher, and can justly tax the people to do it because they know that the people will be repaid by the improved quality of the services he will render during his life.

But in our country few undertake the business of teaching, as a business for life, and from the circumstances of our country, it must probably long remain so. All the avenues to wealth and distinction are here open to all. Wealth is the great means of social distinction. And while the temptations to leave the teacher's profession are as great as they are, we shall constantly find young men of enterprise deserting it for more profitable occupations.

The same difficulty has been experienced by the United States government at the West Point Academy, designed to educate officers for the army. Even the certainty of a permanent and increasing salary for life, has not been sufficient to retain the graduates in the service, when the business of civil life was unusually prosperous and offered them inducements for change.

Mr. Barnard concludes his observations on the Normal Schools of Europe with these practical and common sense remarks, "In conclusion, it may save some misapprehension of his own views to remark, that with all these agencies for the education and improvement of teachers, the public schools of Europe with their institutions of government and society, do not turn out such practical and efficient men as our own common schools, acting in concert with our religious, social and political institutions. A boy educated in a district school of New England, taught for a few months in

the winter by a rough, half-educated, but live teacher who is earning his way by his winter's work in the school-room out of the profession into something which will pay better; and in summer by a young female just out of the oldest class of the winter school and with no other knowledge of teaching than what she may have gathered by observation of the diverse practices of some ten or twelve instructors who must have taught the school under the intermittent and itinerating system which prevails universally in the country districts of New England—a boy thus taught during his school life, but subjected at home and abroad to the stirring influences of a free press, of town and school district meetings, of constant intercourse with those who are mingling with the world and in the affairs of public life, and beyond all these influences, subjected early to the wholesome discipline both moral and intellectual of taking care of himself and the affairs of the house and the farm, will have more capacity for business and exhibit more intellectual activity and versatility than the best scholar who ever graduated from a Prussian school, but whose school life and especially the years which immediately follow, are subjected to the depressing and repressing influences of a despotic government and of a state of society in which every thing is fixed both by law and the iron rule of custom. But this superiority is not due to the school, but is gained in spite of the school.—Our aim should be to make the school better and to bring all the influences of home and society, of religion and free institutions, into perfect harmony with the best teachings of the best teacher.”

There has been great diversity of opinion and practice in this country as to what should be taught in our Normal Schools. In some, direct instruction is given in all the branches taught in our common schools. But to this there are serious objections, and some of the considerations I have mentioned, apply with great force. Those entering a Normal School should certainly be required to have studied all the branches they intend to teach, and then the time may be profitably spent in occasional reviews to refresh their knowledge, and in direct instruction in the principles and various modes of teaching. The latter seems to be the proper province of the Normal School.

The want of a Normal School among us is at present partially supplied by the institution of the Normal Department in Brown University, an account of which by Professor Greene, is appended to this report.

## GRADES OF QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

The original design of the school laws was to establish three grades of teachers. School Committees were to give certificates of qualification which were to be valid only in their own towns. County Inspectors were to give certificates which were intended to be of a higher grade and to be valid throughout the county. And finally, the hope was held out to the faithful and persevering, of receiving a certificate endorsed by the Commissioner, which was to be valid throughout the State.

The intention of the law, however, has never been carried out. Few of the latter class of certificates have ever been given. And so much clashing and jealousy has arisen from County Inspectors giving certificates with which Committees were dissatisfied, that the appointment of Inspectors was discontinued.

Yet the object of the law is good, and should, if possible, be carried out. The teacher whose long service and high qualifications entitle him to it, should receive a certificate of those qualifications of a higher degree than is given to the less qualified and inexperienced.

To effect this, and at the same time to protect the Commissioner from the charge of favoritism and partiality—the suspicion of which would diminish the value of the certificate—the following plan might be adopted:—A board of examining teachers might be appointed, to meet at specified times, and all teachers with whose qualifications the Commissioner was not personally acquainted, might be referred to this board for examination. The certificate would then not be liable to be given on imperfect information or partial recommendations, and would be valuable to those who obtained it.

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LYCEUM LECTURES.

The subject of lectures deserves attention as a part of a system of public education, and a means of diffusing information among the people. Where they can be supported, they afford a means of much valuable improvement.—But I apprehend that the manner in which they have generally been managed amongst us, is not the one calculated to do the most good. Overlooking our home material, we send

abroad for lecturers, and pay a high price for them ; we get in return a certain amount of general declamation on some subject, or on matters and things in general, with a full proportion of high-sounding phrases, but very little definite knowledge, and very little that is fitted to make an impression on our minds, and to excite thought in us. Now, almost every large village contains some men who have opportunities for reading, or who by practice have become well acquainted with some particular branch of knowledge, or who have had opportunities of travelling and seeing the world.—If these men would digest the results of their reading and of their practical knowledge on the subjects familiar to them into lectures, and with an occasional interchange of lectures with other villages, it would be a profitable way of spending some of our winter evenings ; and the lecturers themselves would be well paid by the mental discipline and improvement to which the effort would conduce. As it is, we get our lecturers from abroad, we expect too much, we are often disappointed, and after a great deal of trouble and expense, we get tired and give up the system. An association of gentlemen for mutual improvement, conducted as I have suggested, and open to the public, might be managed without any expense. They would improve themselves and the exercises might be made pleasant and useful to the whole community. But if they have no time to write, or do not desire to appear before the public, evening meetings for reading and occasional discussion might be substituted.

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## UNION DISTRICTS.

I would again call attention, as I have done in a former report, to the formation of Union Districts. Many of our villages are so situated that they are divided not only between different districts, but between different towns. In all of these cases it would be for the advantage of the people to unite the districts, by which they would be enabled to keep their schools for a longer time, to employ more and better teachers, and to divide the scholars according to age and proficiency. In several of our large villages, the districts have been consolidated and the schools graded. And there are many districts on streams which divide towns, which might be united with great benefit.



By a provision in the present law, any two or more districts with the approbation of the school committee, may unite together without losing their claim to that portion of the school money which is divided equally by districts. This was intended to encourage the union of districts, and it is to be hoped that it will have that effect.

There is no way in which more can be done for education in those neighborhoods which admit of it, than by the formation of union districts.

NOTE.—This subject of uniting schools for the purpose of improvement and gradation is so important that we introduce here the following suggestions of various authors, which we take from the very able report of Hon. Erastus Root, Superintendent of Schools of Wisconsin.

#### PLAN PROPOSED IN PALMER'S PRIZE ESSAY.

"Let a female school be kept in every district, throughout the year, with the exception of two short vacations; the teachers being engaged *not* for any specific time, but as long as both parties remain suited. Let the studies, in such schools, be confined to reading, writing, composition, (which of course includes orthography, and a certain extent of grammar, and the structure of sentences,) arithmetic and geography. Let these be considered as the primary schools, through which every child must, of necessity pass, to prepare himself for a different series, in a higher grade of schools, to be called central, or high schools. Of these, let there be one, or in large populous towns, two in each town. Generally these central schools would only be kept during the winter; though some of the larger villages might, perhaps, afford them employment throughout the year. In such cases, additional assistants would be wanted during the winter season, when the larger children of the farmers, &c., would generally attend. To prevent the younger children who live convenient to those central schools, from pressing in too soon, and at the same time, to avoid the invidiousness of preliminary examination, it would be well to adopt as an undeviating rule, that no instructions should be given in the branches taught in the primary schools, excepting in composition, which should be attended to on a more extended scale, one afternoon in the week.

"The central schools should be considered as *town schools*, and of course should be partially supported by a proportion of the public funds from all the districts. It would not be proper, however, that these contributions should be in an equal ratio. They should be adjusted on some principle favoring the districts, in proportion to their distances from the school house. It would scarcely be practicable to suggest a rule that would apply fairly, and in all cases; but something like the following might probably be satisfactory in the greater number. Let such neighborhoods, (within certain limits,) as would agree to furnish the school house, or make the most liberal offer towards that item of expense, have the right of fixing the site, and also have the use of the building for purposes not inconsistent with its character, when not occupied as a school. With respect to the other expenses, that part of the teachers' wages not paid by the public money, might be raised by an equal tax on the scholars; while in addition, the expense of board might be defrayed by those living within one mile of the school house, and of the fuel by those within from one to two miles. The more distant families would thus be compensated for the inconvenience of their remoteness, by their exemption from these expenses. Besides, as the children would not probably be prepared for the central school till about the age of twelve, the increased distance would then be a matter of but trifling moment.

"Attached to the central school house, there should always be a long shed for the accommodation of the teams of distant families, who would probably make some arrangement to furnish such a convenience by turns; while those who were unprovided, might pay a reasonable portion of their expense by their labor. The school house itself should be on a scale sufficiently large to admit of a few lodging rooms for those female pupils, whose health might be too delicate to go daily to their distant homes. Here, with a trifling inconvenience, and without any additional expense, save the transport of their provisions, and a little necessary furniture from

## ATTENDANCE ON THE SCHOOLS.

The number of children, especially in our cities and villages, who receive no benefit from our public schools, is very great.

In order to exhibit the extent of this evil, I have added to the abstract which accompanies this report a column giving the number of persons in each town over the age of four and under fifteen, as taken from the new census. This, of course, does not give exactly the number of those who should be receiving education, as a considerable number of those over fifteen should be in the schools, but it is the nearest approximation we can make of it.

home, they might board themselves. But the boys should, in all cases, return home; as it is more important that they should be under the eye of their parents, as they have, generally, more or less evening and morning duties to perform.

"The distance from the furthest corner of the town would probably, in no case, exceed four or five miles. Should there be any pupils to whom it might be inconvenient to furnish means of conveyance, *daily*, it might easily be arranged, that they should have longer tasks, and attend the school for recitation only two or three times a week. And, if their leisure time was properly spent at home, it is highly probable, that improvement would be more rapid, under such an arrangement, than where the school was attended more constantly. For it would certainly have the tendency, in most cases, to induce habits of patient perseverance, and confidence in one's own exertions,—habits of much more importance than the mere attainment of science. In all schools there is too much leaning on the teacher, too little patient research and self-dependence.

"As the languages and higher branches of mathematics should be taught in the central schools, it would be necessary to have a gentleman of liberal education at its head; but probably, so great has been the improvement of female education within a few years, there would be little difficulty of procuring a sufficiency of well qualified assistants of that sex."

## PLAN PROPOSED BY HORACE MANN.

"It seems not unconnected with this subject to inquire, whether in many places out of our cities a plan may not be adopted to give greater efficiency to the means now devoted to common school education. The population of many towns is so situated as conveniently to allow a gradation of the schools. For children under the age of eight or ten years, about a mile seems a proper limit, beyond which they should not be required to travel to school. On this supposition, one house, as centrally situated as circumstances will permit, would accommodate the population upon the territory of four square miles, or, which is the same thing, two miles square. But a child above that age can go two miles to school, or even rather more without serious inconvenience. There are many persons whose experience attests, that they never enjoyed better health, or made greater progress, than when they went two miles and a half, or three miles daily, to school. Supposing, however, the most remote scholars to live only at about the distance of two miles from the school, one house will then accommodate all the older children upon a territory of sixteen square miles, or four miles square. Under such an arrangement, while there were four schools in a territory of four miles square, i. e., sixteen square miles, for the younger children, there would be one central school for the older. Suppose there is \$600 to be divided amongst the inhabitants of this territory of sixteen square miles, or \$150 for each of the four districts. Suppose, farther, that the average wages for the male teachers is \$25, and for female \$12 50 per month. If, according to the present system, four male teachers are employed for the winter term, and four female for the summer, each of the summer and winter schools may be kept four months. The money would then be exhausted; i. e., four months summer at \$12 50=\$50, and four months winter, at \$25=\$100; both=\$150. But according to the plan suggested, the same money would pay for six months summer school instead of four, in each of



With this, let any person compare the column which gives the whole number of scholars attending the schools. But even this will not show the magnitude of the evil. To know the full extent of it, we should make the comparison with the average attendance, as a large number of those who attend are merely registered and attend but a very little while.

The rate of non-attendance would appear to be highest in Newport, but very large in many other towns.

That the rate bill system, or system of assessments on scholars in our country towns, has the effect of inducing many parents to keep their children from school, there can be no doubt. By law, the poor are exempted from assessment, but this is a privilege which very few will claim. Few are willing to have their children considered as charity scholars. This is a commendable pride.

the four districts, and for a male teacher's school eight months, at \$35 a month, instead of four at \$25 a month, and would then leave \$20 in the treasury.

"By this plan, the great superiority of female over male training for children under 8, 10 or 12 years of age, would be secured; the larger scholars would be separated from the smaller, and thus the great diversity of studies and of classes in the same school, which now crumbles the teacher's time into dust, would be avoided; the female schools would be lengthened one half; and the length of male schools would be doubled, and for the increased compensation, a teacher of four fold qualifications could be employed. Undoubtedly, in many towns upon the Cape or among the mountains, the course of the roads and the face of the territory would present insuperable obstacles to the full reduction of this scheme to practice. But it is as unquestionable, that in many others no physical impediments exist to its immediate adoption; especially if we consider the legal power of different towns to unite portions of their territory for the joint maintenance of schools. We have not yet brought the power of united action to bear with half its force upon the end or the means of education. I think it will yet be found more emphatically true in this department of human action, than in any other, that adding individual means multiplies social power."

PLAN PROPOSED BY HENRY BARNARD, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS OF COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

"To remedy in all or in part, the evils thus summarily presented, it is proposed that so far as practicable, the younger children with the primary studies, be assigned to female teachers, and the older children and more advanced studies, to male teachers, and that both classes of teachers be well qualified for their appropriate grade of schools. This, it is thought, can be done in one of the following modes:

"1st. By employing in every district numbering over fifty children in school, two or more teachers, as is now done in more than eighty districts. There are several hundred districts which could adopt this course.

"2d. By the union of two or more adjoining districts, for the purpose of maintaining a union school for the older children of such associating districts, while the younger children of each, are left in the district schools. There is scarcely a school society in the State, where at least one such union district cannot be formed.

"3d. By the establishment of a central school, where the circumstances of the society will admit of its being done, for the older children of all the districts.

"By the establishment in each society, of one central school, or one or more union schools, for the older children, and more advanced studies, the district

It is probable, too, that a considerable portion of the non-attendance in some places may be owing to religious or sectarian feeling. If such be the case, the objections should be enquired into; and if any thing can be done to remove them, without impairing the efficiency of the schools, or without a surrender of any principles essential to the maintenance of a public school system, it should certainly be done.

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## CHILDREN IN FACTORIES.

Another, and probably the most considerable portion of the non-attendance in the schools, is the result of the employment of children in factories. The subject of the education of the children in these establishments, deserves the serious attention of the Legislature.

The improvements of modern times have rendered the labor of children valuable to a degree that formerly could not have been anticipated. Hence the temptation to parents in destitute

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school will be relieved of at least one-half the number of classes and studies, and the objections to the employment of female teachers in the winter, on account of their alleged inability to govern and instruct the older boys, will be removed.

"As the compensation of female teachers is less than one-half that paid to males, every instance of the employment of a female teacher in place of a male teacher in the district school, will save one-half of the wages paid to the latter, which can be expended in increasing, partly the wages of the former, and partly the wages of the male teacher in the union or central school. It will be found that the same amount of money now expended in three districts, on three female teachers in summer, and three male teachers in winter, will employ three female teachers for the whole length of the summer and winter school, and one male teacher for the winter, at an advance of one-third or one-half of the average rate of wages paid to each.

"This arrangement will thus lead to the more permanent employment of a larger number of female teachers, at an advanced compensation, thus holding out an additional inducement to females of the right character and qualifications, to teach in the district school. It will also reduce the demand for male teachers, except of the highest orders of qualifications, and increase the wages of those who are employed. In both ways it will diminish the expense, the loss of time, and other evils of a constant change of teachers in the same school, and give permanence and character to the profession of teacher.

"It will enable the teachers of the several schools to introduce studies, discipline and instruction appropriate to each. In the district primary school, the younger children need no longer be subjected to the discomforts and neglects which they now experience, or primary studies be crowded one side, to make room for the higher branches. In the union or central school, the scholars, coming as they would, from the primary school, well grounded in the fundamental branches, will be prepared to enter profitably upon studies which are now pursued to advantage only in academies and other private schools of a similar grade. Thus, all that is now accomplished in the district school, will be better done, the course of study very much extended, and the advantages of a more thorough and complete education be more widely diffused."

circumstance is strong to take their children from the schools early, and put them in some establishment where they can aid them by their labor. But the necessitous are not the only ones who do this. Many who have health and strength, and ability to support themselves and families by their own labor, yield to this temptation, to live upon the labor of their children, and support themselves in this way.

Any person familiar with our schools must have noticed the small number of large scholars in all our ordinary schools. As soon as they are able to labor, they are taken from the school.

By an act entitled "An act to provide for the better instruction of children employed in manufacturing establishments," which was passed at January session, A. D. 1840, and remained in force several years, owners and superintendents of factories were prohibited from employing in their factories children who had not attended some school for three months in the year. Similar laws are now in force in several States of our Union.

It is to be hoped, that when the Legislature receives the report of Col. Sayles, who has been appointed by the Governor to collect the statistics upon this subject, it will receive their early attention.

It is due to the manufacturers of this State to say, that with few exceptions, they have generously supported all measures for the improvement of our schools, and have often munificently contributed to the building of houses and furnishing of libraries.

The principal object of any law would be to exert an influence upon the parents themselves. It is painful to consider that there are in this country, and at this age of the world, a class—and not a small class—of parents who calculate to live upon their children's earnings, and maintain themselves in idleness, and sometimes in dissipation, upon their wages. We denounce Southern slavery, while we have in our midst parents who treat their own children as property, body and soul, and who sell their services, not for the good of the children, not to educate and support them, but to pamper to their own indolence and ease.

While we admit as a general principle that the law ought but seldom to interfere between the parent and the child, and never unless there is some imperious necessity, it would seem that in cases such as we have described, it would be right to interfere, not by direct compulsion, but by an indirect appeal to interest, to prevent the child from being sacrificed to the parent's selfishness.

## MORAL EDUCATION.

I will invite your attention for a short time to the subject of moral education. I do not propose to speak of its importance, but to suggest a few thoughts relating to the connexion between education and the prevention of crime, and to consider what portions of morals may without objection be made subjects of instruction in schools.

If all parents did their duty by their children, little would remain for the public teacher to perform in respect to morals, and he might devote his almost undivided time to their intellectual advancement. A large portion of parents, however, are prevented by poverty or business from giving it their attention.

A want of reverence for parental authority is supposed to be one of the characteristics of our country and of our times.—In former times the parent had the power of life and death over his child. In some countries, as long as the parent lived, the child was not free from his control. With the progress of civilization, the laws in all countries have become milder.—But in our country, partly probably from carrying to excess our notions of liberty and freedom from restraint, partly from the newness of the country and the unsettled, shifting habits natural to a new country—and partly from the facility with which any person can support himself and thus become independent of others—we have gone to the other extreme. The child, at an early age, throws off all control; fortunate if he does not throw off all respect for the parent. But although much of this may be due to outward circumstances, we must, however, acknowledge that a great deal of it is owing to the fault of the parents themselves.

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RELATION OF EDUCATION TO PREVENTION OF CRIME.\*

The consideration of the connexion between education and the prevention of crime is most important, because the right to take the property of the people to educate the children of all, depends in a great measure upon our assuming that education tends to prevent crime and wretchedness, and therefore is justified and required not for the individual, so much as by the

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\* See a late number of one of the Quarterly Reviews, and also, Essays by the Central Society: Essay by G. R. Porter, Esq.



good of society. We tax the public to educate a person, not because it promotes his personal advantage, but because we presume that we shall make a better citizen of him and so promote the good of the community. And the enquiry is interesting also, as shewing us what we may reasonably expect from a system of education in reforming the morals of a people.

Some may perhaps express surprise that any one could imagine that education would not have a tendency to lessen the amount of crime—yet intelligent men have done so—and when we examine the subject we find that statistics afford us very little aid in arriving at any certain conclusion.

For instance, to show the caution with which we should reason from ordinary statistics, able writers have drawn exactly contrary conclusions from the returns of crimes in France. An intelligent and able man, Mr. Guery, shows as he thinks satisfactorily, that the amount of crime is greater in the best educated than in the most ignorant portions of France. But his conclusions are drawn from the returns of a single year.

In 1813, the number of persons charged with offences against society in England and Wales, was 7,164. In 1836, 20,984; nearly three times as many. And during this whole time, public and private benevolence had been actively engaged in schemes for educating and promoting the moral and intellectual improvement of their people.

In 1849, 14,569 males—2,557 females—Total, 17,126 under 17, were imprisoned for various periods for offences in England, and of these, 12,500 were convicted. The proportion of crime in the various districts present some curious facts—thus of the above,—(persons under 17.)

In the Metropolitan counties	the proportion is	1 to 694
“ Manufacturing	“	1 to 1600
“ Maritime	“	1 to 1508
“ Agricultural	“	1 to 1947
“ Mining	“	1 to 2078

It appears from a comparison of the French and English returns, that the number of persons punished for crime under 17, or what may be called juvenile offenders, is nearly double in England what it is in France, in proportion to the population. And this has led to serious enquiry into the causes of it and presents some considerations which might be of practical use very near home, in our little State of Rhode Island.

In England, the system of short imprisonment for small offences committed by boys, is adopted; the same system we have followed here. In France, boys committing small crimes are considered as subjects for reformation, and are sentenced



to be detained for various periods up to ten years, according to circumstances, and placed under proper discipline and instruction. In the English system and in ours, the young offender is sentenced for a short time, he is shut up with old offenders and he comes out a hardened criminal, and the probability is, that the government is at the expense during his life of convicting and imprisoning him continually, unless he is led by passion to commit some great offence by which he forfeits his life or his liberty for life.

The effect of the two systems upon the statistics is obvious. In the English system and in ours, the same young man is continually committing offences which of course swell the whole number of crimes committed in the country and add to the expense of criminal justice. On the French system he offends but once. He is then detained under training for a time sufficient to give a chance of reformation. The number of *first offenders* might be the same under each system. The number of *offences* could not be.

As I said before, these facts suggest considerations which may be applied at home. We have always followed the old English system of short imprisonments for small offences, and boys are treated as if they were as intelligent and as responsible as older persons and are shut up with them in the same jail. Then an appeal is made to the humanity of the Legislature and the boy is pardoned and the result generally is, that in about a year he is again before the Legislature for the same mercy. Any person familiar with our Legislative proceedings for a series of years, will recognize the truth of this. And while we pursue the system of committing them to the ordinary prisons and shutting them up to be schooled by old hardened criminals, members of succeeding Legislatures will very naturally pursue the same system of pardons.

But we may well be glad that a beginning has been made in the right direction.

A few years since, the city of Providence took measures to establish a Reform School, under the authority of an act of the Legislature. Subsequently by an agreement between the State and city, the State has been authorised to send its young criminals to it. By acts passed January and October, 1850, any Justice of the Peace in the State when sentencing juvenile offenders, may in his discretion, sentence them to the Reform School.

I take every opportunity to call attention to this, because the institution is new and has as yet few friends, and many of those who are opposed to all change, look coldly on it. Yet it seems to me that it needs only to be known to enlist the sympathy of all philanthropists. Institutions of the kind have succeeded elsewhere. Why should they not here?

The statistics of crime in relation to education are generally defective, because they do not show the amount or degree of education. It is obvious, that in taking an account of crimes committed by educated persons, we should make a distinction between those who have learned only to read and write without going any farther, which is the case with a large number of those who attend school, and those who have received any education worthy of the name. Yet in the greater part of statistical accounts, crimes committed by those who can merely read and write, and that perhaps very imperfectly, are charged to the account of education. Since 1828 the French, and since 1836 the English tables, have classed the criminals as follows :

1. Those who can neither read nor write.
2. Those who can read only, or who can read and write imperfectly.
3. Those who can read and write well.
4. Those who have received instruction beyond that of a merely elementary school.

The results of returns under these classes have been thus far highly satisfactory and encouraging. For seven years ending with 1834, the convictions in France averaged 4,238, of whom only 65, or one in 65, belonged to the educated—being one in about 500,000 of the population. In England, for 1836, the number of persons accused of crime was 20,984; out of these, 191 were of the class who had received superior education. In Scotland, out of 2,922, 55 belonged to this class.

But these statements are almost too favorable to be relied on. Perhaps we can account for it by supposing that many crimes committed by the educated, the intelligent and the shrewd, remain undetected; and if detected, that their ingenuity sometimes enables them to escape conviction. Besides the crimes punished by the courts, are crimes against property or person, generally accompanied with some degree of violence; crimes which educated persons would be less likely to commit; while there are many violations of right by educated men, which a rigid morality would denounce as criminal, but which the law cannot punish because it cannot define them.

So far as the statistics go to show that there is less crime in the agricultural than there is in the manufacturing, seaport and city districts, they agree with what we should *a priori* expect the result to be. In the country generally, there is a greater equality of condition; less of that extreme distress which results from crowding together in cities; more kindness and fellow feeling; and many slight offences, especially if they are first offences, are passed over from charity or a hope of reformation. The man of bad character is known, marked

and watched—and there are not enough of them to herd together and form a class and keep each other in countenance.

On the other hand, the great cities (which Jefferson said were great sores upon the body politic) draw together the dissolute and idle from all quarters. It is there, too, that the wealth and enterprise of a country is concentrated, and where there is most wealth, of course will be the greatest number of crimes against property. And in a city there can be none of that compassion for a neighbor which in the country would lead to overlooking a fault. The smallest offence must be punished, without inquiring into the motives which led, or perhaps drove, the offender to commit it.

There is one circumstance connected with the abundance of crime which commends itself to the attention of all friends of education—to all philanthropists. It is this: that in the large cities, the crimes are committed by a separate class. The low and degraded form a separate class, and almost a separate caste by themselves. Accessions are constantly making to their number, but the greater part of them are born and educated to crime—they are hereditary criminals. Shut out of churches and schools, they live by preying upon society. Of God they know but the name. Society they consider their enemy and lawful plunder. The accounts of the ignorance, practical Atheism and debasement of this class in some cities, are hard to be believed by those who are used only to the peaceful and orderly communities of New England.

Although the most dreadful cases are probably in the large cities of the old world, yet our own cities present instances of the same sort, although here, from our youth as a nation, the evil may not be so confirmed and hard to combat. There seems to be an almost complete wall of separation between this class and what I may call the comfortable classes of society—the people of education, of middling property, and the wealthy. To associate with ignorance and vice is no pleasure to the educated and refined; and then, again, the very greatness of the evil and the fact of its long existence, are calculated to deter the timid from undertaking its removal.

We may say that we are not responsible for the existence of these evils. True we may not be directly. But if governments and the comfortable classes had done their duty in years past, the evil could not have reached its present magnitude. If the evil is to be reformed, it must be through the influences of religion and of education. But how is religion to be brought home to them? They are practically shut out of our churches, because they cannot come in upon an equality with others; and no man, with any just pride or feeling of independence, will come in on any other terms. If church-going be an es-

sentinal part of Christianity, then, in some large cities, a man with a family cannot afford to be a Christian unless he is worth his tens of thousands of dollars, and in the same proportion in smaller places. The attention of our churches is already awakened to the necessity of a change of their system. This is shown by the erection of many free churches in our cities within a few years. And in what mode can wealth be more nobly employed than by devoting it to the religious instruction of the poor.

We cannot doubt however, notwithstanding the gloomy details of the criminal calendar, that there has been a gradual and marked change effected in modern civilized society in relation to crime—and a change for the better. The character of the crimes committed has changed. Formerly—in generations past there was comparatively little security for person or property, except in the strong arm of the possessor. The offences were of the more violent kind. Murders, robberies and duels, &c., were more frequent. Now, whatever may be true as to the total number of crimes, those of this violent sort have diminished. Even if it is only a substitution of fraud and craft for violence, it is certainly a change for the better and for the peace of society.

The total number of crimes committed may not have diminished, or may even have increased. If statistics should prove this, there are many reasons why the friends of humanity should not be discouraged. The population of all the civilized nations is fast increasing. Their wealth has increased wonderfully. To promote the acquisition of wealth, property must be secured by the most stringent enactments, and a large class of the offences which makes such a figure in our criminal statistics, are of these modern offences against property. Legislatures in England and in this country almost every year make something a penal offence which was not so before.—This probably is the necessary result of the increase of wealth and civilization. Again, our credit system, while it has nearly superseded the old fashioned mode of robbery, yet presents innumerable temptations to other sorts of crime, temptations which we should rather rejoice that so many withstand, than grieve that a few fall.

Our modern police systems, too, are more perfect than those of former times. Fewer crimes escape detection in our large cities. All these combine to make the amount of crime appear to have increased of late years, while the fact may be very different, if we take into account the increase of population, and consider also, that a great number of the statute offences enumerated as crimes, are not such as necessarily involve any great degree of moral turpitude.



Without any reference, however, to statistics, it would seem as if we ought not to doubt as to the good effects of education in preventing misery and crime.

Even supposing that no direct moral instruction whatever is conveyed, can there be any doubt but that a good training of the intellect alone is favorable to morals? By pursuing a course of mere intellectual study by system, especially if it be pursued under the restraints of a public school or college, the student acquires habits of self-denial, obedience to rule, regularity and order, which are invaluable. And a well disciplined and well stored intellect is a great security against crime in another view. The man of education has pleasures and occupations for his leisure, which ignorance knows not of. He is thus protected from many of those vices into which the ignorant and idle fall from the mere love of excitement. We are so constituted as to need excitement of some sort. He who knows the value of intellectual pleasures, will not be so apt to resort to low company, or intoxicating drinks, for his amusements. And it is probably to the diffusion of education, and to a thorough education, that we must look for the delivery of our community from the scourge of intemperance.

Again, mere intellectual education, doubtless, promotes good morals, at least negatively, by preventing poverty, the extreme of which is a fruitful source of crime. How many crimes are traceable to the temptations arising from poverty. The tendency of education is to raise the man in the scale of being, to produce an ambition, and teach him ways of bettering his condition, to restrain improvidence and waste, to encourage forethought and prudence. So education improves the condition of the poor and removes temptation.

And although the present enormous accumulation of the wealth of civilized society, resulting from their superiority in knowledge, may in its first effect in the hands of the few, produce an increase of crimes against property, yet we should consider that the benefits of this wealth are constantly diffusing, by furnishing cheap necessities and comforts to the poor. The industrious laboring man of the present day, enjoys comforts which were luxuries even to the rich men of former ages. Thus wealth is slowly diffused and the situation of the poorer class improved.

The importance of providing recreation for the mind, of an intellectual character, is not sufficiently considered by us. As I said just now, we are so constituted that we need excitement, we need recreation. And if recreation of an innocent and intellectual kind is not furnished, the people will resort to mere animal and baser gratifications. This is a law of nature,

which laws made by man, will in vain attempt to change or counteract.

Hence the importance of cultivating a habit of reading and supplying the means of gratifying a taste for reading. It was remarked by a foreigner that very few of our large libraries are open to the public. In Europe the reverse is the practice. Hence too the importance of cultivating the practice of vocal and instrumental music, not merely for religious purposes, but for social improvement.

The only danger to be apprehended from moral instruction in our schools, arises from the spirit of sectarianism. That it may be perverted to sectarianism is true. But as all sects agree in the necessity of moral instruction, and as the attempt of any sect to teach its own creed, would inevitably tend to break up any system of public education, and to substitute in their stead sectarian or denominational schools which would leave a large portion of our country without any education at all, it is to be hoped that enough charity and forbearance will be found among the different churches to avoid this evil. We should endeavor to give the youth a sound intellectual and moral training, to teach them how to think, not what to think. We should not suffer ourselves to be haunted with the fear that they will think differently from ourselves on some subject of religion or politics. Parental influence will always incline the child to the opinions of the parent without much direct teaching. If we are well grounded in our opinions and believe them well founded in argument, we should not be afraid of our success. It is generally in proportion to our distrust of our opinions and to the weakness of the arguments on which we have adopted them that we are inclined to quarrel with those who doubt or deny them. And it is only by a full acknowledgement of the right of private judgment in others, and cultivating in our own hearts a spirit of charity towards them, that we can avoid the dangers which surround this question.

If moral instruction cannot be given without being made a means of proselytism on sectarian or political questions, I would say at once that it should be excluded.

Let us then consider for a few moments what portions of morals may with propriety be taught, and the best manner of teaching them; what should be taught, and how.

A full classification of the subject would of course include many things which could not well be taught to the classes of smaller children, such as compose the great majority in our schools. They could not appreciate, and would not profit by systematic instruction. There are certain classes of duties, too, in which in orderly old settled communities—children gain in-

struction at church and at home; their duties to God, their parents, and the family relations, the duty of justice to others, of honesty as to property, and of veracity. In orderly society there is a feeling of honor attached to the performance of some of these duties, and of meanness to their violation which is a great additional motive to doing right.

But, without much system, important instruction may be given in regard to the nature of conscience, and its development aided. They may be warned against the various modes by which conscience may be blinded or misled. The illusions produced by passion, interest, by looking to the end as justifying the means, may be rendered intelligible to all. But it may be more difficult and require more maturity in the scholar to understand and properly to judge of the variety of opinions respecting the moral nature of particular acts, produced by association and the complexity of actions. These can only be understood after considerable acquaintance with the operations and laws of the human mind.

There are some classes of duties which it is very difficult to define, and which law therefore can very seldom punish, but which are most essential to the happiness of society, and should receive our constant attention both in the school and out of it—I mean, our duties to others in regard to their feelings, if I may so express it. And it is in regard to this very class of duties, that the moral instruction of both young and old, in schools, colleges and at home, is probably most deficient. How many men who would scorn to injure their neighbors property, will yet make sport of injuring their feelings. If they can excite a quarrel, prejudice one person against another; if there are any subjects which they know to be peculiarly unpleasant, which the person addressed would like to have forgotten, anything calculated to produce a feeling of disgrace, or of physical or intellectual inferiority, or in any way to disturb his peace of mind, they perhaps take delight in suggesting it, in bringing it forward to public gaze, or if they do not absolutely take delight in it and do it purposely, they are not sufficiently cautious in guarding against it. “A blow with a word strikes deeper than a blow with a sword.” And when we reflect how much of the happiness of life is made up of little things, how much it depends upon attention to the feelings of others, we see the importance of attending to it in early education.

A disposition to attend to the wants and feelings of others, and promote their happiness, united to a certain degree of knowledge of the conventional usages of society, constitutes what we call manners or politeness. Considered merely as regards the child's chances of success in life, it would be worthy



By a provision in the present law, any two or more districts with the approbation of the school committee, may unite together without losing their claim to that portion of the school money which is divided equally by districts. This was intended to encourage the union of districts, and it is to be hoped that it will have that effect.

There is no way in which more can be done for education in those neighborhoods which admit of it, than by the formation of union districts.

NOTE.—This subject of uniting schools for the purpose of improvement and gradation is so important that we introduce here the following suggestions of various authors, which we take from the very able report of Hon. Erastus Root, Superintendent of Schools of Wisconsin.

#### PLAN PROPOSED IN PALMER'S PRIZE ESSAY.

"Let a female school be kept in every district, throughout the year, with the exception of two short vacations; the teachers being engaged *not* for any specific time, but as long as both parties remain suited. Let the studies, in such schools, be confined to reading, writing, composition, (which of course includes orthography, and a certain extent of grammar, and the structure of sentences,) arithmetic and geography. Let these be considered as the primary schools, through which every child must, of necessity pass, to prepare himself for a different series, in a higher grade of schools, to be called central, or high schools. Of these, let there be one, or in large populous towns, two in each town. Generally these central schools would only be kept during the winter; though some of the larger villages might, perhaps, afford them employment throughout the year. In such cases, additional assistants would be wanted during the winter season, when the larger children of the farmers, &c., would generally attend. To prevent the younger children who live convenient to those central schools, from pressing in too soon, and at the same time, to avoid the invidiousness of preliminary examination, it would be well to adopt as an undeviating rule, that no instructions should be given in the branches taught in the primary schools, excepting in composition, which should be attended to on a more extended scale, one afternoon in the week.

"The central schools should be considered as *town schools*, and of course should be partially supported by a proportion of the public funds from all the districts. It would not be proper, however, that these contributions should be in an equal ratio. They should be adjusted on some principle favoring the districts, in proportion to their distances from the school house. It would scarcely be practicable to suggest a rule that would apply fairly, and in all cases; but something like the following might probably be satisfactory in the greater number. Let such neighborhoods, (within certain limits,) as would agree to furnish the school house, or make the most liberal offer towards that item of expense, have the right of fixing the site, and also have the use of the building for purposes not inconsistent with its character, when not occupied as a school. With respect to the other expenses, that part of the teachers' wages not paid by the public money, might be raised by an equal tax on the scholars; while in addition, the expense of board might be defrayed by those living within one mile of the school house, and of the fuel by those within from one to two miles. The more distant families would thus be compensated for the inconvenience of their remoteness, by their exemption from these expenses. Besides, as the children would not probably be prepared for the central school till about the age of twelve, the increased distance would then be a matter of but trifling moment.

"Attached to the central school house, there should always be a long shed for the accommodation of the teams of distant families, who would probably make some arrangement to furnish such a convenience by turns; while those who were unprovided, might pay a reasonable portion of their expense by their labor. The school house itself should be on a scale sufficiently large to admit of a few lodging rooms for those female pupils, whose health might be too delicate to go daily to their distant homes. Here, with a trifling inconvenience, and without any additional expense, save the transport of their provisions, and a little necessary furniture from



## ATTENDANCE ON THE SCHOOLS.

The number of children, especially in our cities and villages, who receive no benefit from our public schools, is very great.

In order to exhibit the extent of this evil, I have added to the abstract which accompanies this report a column giving the number of persons in each town over the age of four and under fifteen, as taken from the new census. This, of course, does not give exactly the number of those who should be receiving education, as a considerable number of those over fifteen should be in the schools, but it is the nearest approximation we can make of it.

home, they might board themselves. But the boys should, in all cases, return home; as it is more important that they should be under the eye of their parents, as they have, generally, more or less evening and morning duties to perform.

"The distance from the furthest corner of the town would probably, in no case, exceed four or five miles. Should there be any pupils to whom it might be inconvenient to furnish means of conveyance, *daily*, it might easily be arranged, that they should have longer tasks, and attend the school for recitation only two or three times a week. And, if their leisure time was properly spent at home, it is highly probable, that improvement would be more rapid, under such an arrangement, than where the school was attended more constantly. For it would certainly have the tendency, in most cases, to induce habits of patient perseverance, and confidence in one's own exertions,—habits of much more importance than the mere attainment of science. In all schools there is too much leaning on the teacher, too little patient research and self-dependence.

"As the languages and higher branches of mathematics should be taught in the central schools, it would be necessary to have a gentleman of liberal education at its head; but probably, so great has been the improvement of female education within a few years, there would be little difficulty of procuring a sufficiency of well qualified assistants of that sex."

## PLAN PROPOSED BY HORACE MANN.

"It seems not unconnected with this subject to inquire, whether in many places out of our cities a plan may not be adopted to give greater efficiency to the means now devoted to common school education. The population of many towns is so situated as conveniently to allow a gradation of the schools. For children under the age of eight or ten years, about a mile seems a proper limit, beyond which they should not be required to travel to school. On this supposition, one house, as centrally situated as circumstances will permit, would accommodate the population upon the territory of four square miles, or, which is the same thing, two miles square. But a child above that age can go two miles to school, or even rather more without serious inconvenience. There are many persons whose experience attests, that they never enjoyed better health, or made greater progress, than when they went two miles and a half, or three miles daily, to school. Supposing, however, the most remote scholars to live only at about the distance of two miles from the school, one house will then accommodate all the older children upon a territory of sixteen square miles, or four miles square. Under such an arrangement, while there were four schools in a territory of four miles square, i. e., sixteen square miles, for the younger children, there would be one central school for the older. Suppose there is \$600 to be divided amongst the inhabitants of this territory of sixteen square miles, or \$150 for each of the four districts. Suppose, farther, that the average wages for the male teachers is \$25, and for female \$12 50 per month. If, according to the present system, four male teachers are employed for the winter term, and four female for the summer, each of the summer and winter schools may be kept four months. The money would then be exhausted; i. e., four months summer at \$12 50=\$50, and four months winter, at \$25=\$100; both=\$150. But according to the plan suggested, the same money would pay for six months summer school instead of four, in each of

With this, let any person compare the column which gives the whole number of scholars attending the schools. But even this will not show the magnitude of the evil. To know the full extent of it, we should make the comparison with the average attendance, as a large number of those who attend are merely registered and attend but a very little while.

The rate of non-attendance would appear to be highest in Newport, but very large in many other towns.

That the rate bill system, or system of assessments on scholars in our country towns, has the effect of inducing many parents to keep their children from school, there can be no doubt. By law, the poor are exempted from assessment, but this is a privilege which very few will claim. Few are willing to have their children considered as charity scholars. This is a commendable pride.

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the four districts, and for a male teacher's school eight months, at \$35 a month, instead of four at \$25 a month, and would then leave \$20 in the treasury.

"By this plan, the great superiority of female over male training for children under 8, 10 or 12 years of age, would be secured; the larger scholars would be separated from the smaller, and thus the great diversity of studies and of classes in the same school, which now crumbles the teacher's time into dust, would be avoided; the female schools would be lengthened one half; and the length of male schools would be doubled, and for the increased compensation, a teacher of four fold qualifications could be employed. Undoubtedly, in many towns upon the Cape or among the mountains, the course of the roads and the face of the territory would present insuperable obstacles to the full reduction of this scheme to practice. But it is as unquestionable, that in many others no physical impediments exist to its immediate adoption; especially if we consider the legal power of different towns to unite portions of their territory for the joint maintenance of schools. We have not yet brought the power of united action to bear with half its force upon the end or the means of education. I think it will yet be found more emphatically true in this department of human action, than in any other, that adding individual means multiplies social power."

PLAN PROPOSED BY HENRY BARNARD, SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS OF COMMON SCHOOLS OF CONNECTICUT.

"To remedy in all or in part, the evils thus summarily presented, it is proposed that so far as practicable, the younger children with the primary studies, be assigned to female teachers, and the older children and more advanced studies, to male teachers, and that both classes of teachers be well qualified for their appropriate grade of schools. This, it is thought, can be done in one of the following modes:

"1st. By employing in every district numbering over fifty children in school, two or more teachers, as is now done in more than eighty districts. There are several hundred districts which could adopt this course.

"2d. By the union of two or more adjoining districts, for the purpose of maintaining a union school for the older children of such associating districts, while the younger children of each, are left in the district schools. There is scarcely a school society in the State, where at least one such union district cannot be formed.

"3d. By the establishment of a central school, where the circumstances of the society will admit of its being done, for the older children of all the districts.

"By the establishment in each society, of one central school, or one or more union schools, for the older children, and more advanced studies, the district

It is probable, too, that a considerable portion of the non-attendance in some places may be owing to religious or sectarian feeling. If such be the case, the objections should be enquired into; and if any thing can be done to remove them, without impairing the efficiency of the schools, or without a surrender of any principles essential to the maintenance of a public school system, it should certainly be done.

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## CHILDREN IN FACTORIES.

Another, and probably the most considerable portion of the non-attendance in the schools, is the result of the employment of children in factories. The subject of the education of the children in these establishments, deserves the serious attention of the Legislature.

The improvements of modern times have rendered the labor of children valuable to a degree that formerly could not have been anticipated. Hence the temptation to parents in destitute

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school will be relieved of at least one-half the number of classes and studies, and the objections to the employment of female teachers in the winter, on account of their alleged inability to govern and instruct the older boys, will be removed.

"As the compensation of female teachers is less than one-half that paid to males, every instance of the employment of a female teacher in place of a male teacher in the district school, will save one-half of the wages paid to the latter, which can be expended in increasing, partly the wages of the former, and partly the wages of the male teacher in the union or central school. It will be found that the same amount of money now expended in three districts, on three female teachers in summer, and three male teachers in winter, will employ three female teachers for the whole length of the summer and winter school, and one male teacher for the winter, at an advance of one-third or one-half of the average rate of wages paid to each.

"This arrangement will thus lead to the more permanent employment of a larger number of female teachers, at an advanced compensation, thus holding out an additional inducement to females of the right character and qualifications, to teach in the district school. It will also reduce the demand for male teachers, except of the highest orders of qualifications, and increase the wages of those who are employed. In both ways it will diminish the expense, the loss of time, and other evils of a constant change of teachers in the same school, and give permanence and character to the profession of teacher.

"It will enable the teachers of the several schools to introduce studies, discipline and instruction appropriate to each. In the district primary school, the younger children need no longer be subjected to the discomforts and neglects which they now experience, or primary studies be crowded one side, to make room for the higher branches. In the union or central school, the scholars, coming as they would, from the primary school, well grounded in the fundamental branches, will be prepared to enter profitably upon studies which are now pursued to advantage only in academies and other private schools of a similar grade. Thus, all that is now accomplished in the district school, will be better done, the course of study very much extended, and the advantages of a more thorough and complete education be more widely diffused."

circumstance is strong to take their children from the schools early, and put them in some establishment where they can aid them by their labor. But the necessitous are not the only ones who do this. Many who have health and strength, and ability to support themselves and families by their own labor, yield to this temptation, to live upon the labor of their children, and support themselves in this way.

Any person familiar with our schools must have noticed the small number of large scholars in all our ordinary schools. As soon as they are able to labor, they are taken from the school.

By an act entitled "An act to provide for the better instruction of children employed in manufacturing establishments," which was passed at January session, A. D. 1840, and remained in force several years, owners and superintendents of factories were prohibited from employing in their factories children who had not attended some school for three months in the year. Similar laws are now in force in several States of our Union.

It is to be hoped, that when the Legislature receives the report of Col. Sayles, who has been appointed by the Governor to collect the statistics upon this subject, it will receive their early attention.

It is due to the manufacturers of this State to say, that with few exceptions, they have generously supported all measures for the improvement of our schools, and have often munificently contributed to the building of houses and furnishing of libraries.

The principal object of any law would be to exert an influence upon the parents themselves. It is painful to consider that there are in this country, and at this age of the world, a class—and not a small class—of parents who calculate to live upon their children's earnings, and maintain themselves in idleness, and sometimes in dissipation, upon their wages. We denounce Southern slavery, while we have in our midst parents who treat their own children as property, body and soul, and who sell their services, not for the good of the children, not to educate and support them, but to pamper to their own indolence and ease.

While we admit as a general principle that the law ought but seldom to interfere between the parent and the child, and never unless there is some imperious necessity, it would seem that in cases such as we have described, it would be right to interfere, not by direct compulsion, but by an indirect appeal to interest, to prevent the child from being sacrificed to the parent's selfishness.



## MORAL EDUCATION.

I will invite your attention for a short time to the subject of moral education. I do not propose to speak of its importance, but to suggest a few thoughts relating to the connexion between education and the prevention of crime, and to consider what portions of morals may without objection be made subjects of instruction in schools.

If all parents did their duty by their children, little would remain for the public teacher to perform in respect to morals, and he might devote his almost undivided time to their intellectual advancement. A large portion of parents, however, are prevented by poverty or business from giving it their attention.

A want of reverence for parental authority is supposed to be one of the characteristics of our country and of our times.—In former times the parent had the power of life and death over his child. In some countries, as long as the parent lived, the child was not free from his control. With the progress of civilization, the laws in all countries have become milder.—But in our country, partly probably from carrying to excess our notions of liberty and freedom from restraint, partly from the newness of the country and the unsettled, shifting habits natural to a new country—and partly from the facility with which any person can support himself and thus become independent of others—we have gone to the other extreme. The child, at an early age, throws off all control; fortunate if he does not throw off all respect for the parent. But although much of this may be due to outward circumstances, we must, however, acknowledge that a great deal of it is owing to the fault of the parents themselves.

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RELATION OF EDUCATION TO PREVENTION OF CRIME.\*

The consideration of the connexion between education and the prevention of crime is most important, because the right to take the property of the people to educate the children of all, depends in a great measure upon our assuming that education tends to prevent crime and wretchedness, and therefore is justified and required not for the individual, so much as by the

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\* See a late number of one of the Quarterly Reviews, and also, Essays by the Central Society: Essay by G. R. Porter, Esq.

good of society. We tax the public to educate a person, not because it promotes his personal advantage, but because we presume that we shall make a better citizen of him and so promote the good of the community. And the enquiry is interesting also, as shewing us what we may reasonably expect from a system of education in reforming the morals of a people.

Some may perhaps express surprise that any one could imagine that education would not have a tendency to lessen the amount of crime—yet intelligent men have done so—and when we examine the subject we find that statistics afford us very little aid in arriving at any certain conclusion.

For instance, to show the caution with which we should reason from ordinary statistics, able writers have drawn exactly contrary conclusions from the returns of crimes in France. An intelligent and able man, Mr. Guery, shows as he thinks satisfactorily, that the amount of crime is greater in the best educated than in the most ignorant portions of France. But his conclusions are drawn from the returns of a single year.

In 1813, the number of persons charged with offences against society in England and Wales, was 7,164. In 1836, 20,984; nearly three times as many. And during this whole time, public and private benevolence had been actively engaged in schemes for educating and promoting the moral and intellectual improvement of their people.

In 1849, 14,569 males—2,557 females—Total, 17,126 under 17, were imprisoned for various periods for offences in England, and of these, 12,500 were convicted. The proportion of crime in the various districts present some curious facts—thus of the above,—(persons under 17.)

In the Metropolitan counties	the proportion is	1 to 694
“ Manufacturing	“	1 to 1600
“ Maritime	“	1 to 1508
“ Agricultural	“	1 to 1947
“ Mining	“	1 to 2078

It appears from a comparison of the French and English returns, that the number of persons punished for crime under 17, or what may be called juvenile offenders, is nearly double in England what it is in France, in proportion to the population. And this has led to serious enquiry into the causes of it and presents some considerations which might be of practical use very near home, in our little State of Rhode Island.

In England, the system of short imprisonment for small offences committed by boys, is adopted; the same system we have followed here. In France, boys committing small crimes are considered as subjects for reformation, and are sentenced

to be detained for various periods up to ten years, according to circumstances, and placed under proper discipline and instruction. In the English system and in ours, the young offender is sentenced for a short time, he is shut up with old offenders and he comes out a hardened criminal, and the probability is, that the government is at the expense during his life of convicting and imprisoning him continually, unless he is led by passion to commit some great offence by which he forfeits his life or his liberty for life.

The effect of the two systems upon the statistics is obvious. In the English system and in ours, the same young man is continually committing offences which of course swell the whole number of crimes committed in the country and add to the expense of criminal justice. On the French system he offends but once. He is then detained under training for a time sufficient to give a chance of reformation. The number of *first offenders* might be the same under each system. The number of *offences* could not be.

As I said before, these facts suggest considerations which may be applied at home. We have always followed the old English system of short imprisonments for small offences, and boys are treated as if they were as intelligent and as responsible as older persons and are shut up with them in the same jail. Then an appeal is made to the humanity of the Legislature and the boy is pardoned and the result generally is, that in about a year he is again before the Legislature for the same mercy. Any person familiar with our Legislative proceedings for a series of years, will recognize the truth of this. And while we pursue the system of committing them to the ordinary prisons and shutting them up to be schooled by old hardened criminals, members of succeeding Legislatures will very naturally pursue the same system of pardons.

But we may well be glad that a beginning has been made in the right direction.

A few years since, the city of Providence took measures to establish a Reform School, under the authority of an act of the Legislature. Subsequently by an agreement between the State and city, the State has been authorised to send its young criminals to it. By acts passed January and October, 1850, any Justice of the Peace in the State when sentencing juvenile offenders, may in his discretion, sentence them to the Reform School.

I take every opportunity to call attention to this, because the institution is new and has as yet few friends, and many of those who are opposed to all change, look coldly on it. Yet it seems to me that it needs only to be known to enlist the sympathy of all philanthropists. Institutions of the kind have succeeded elsewhere. Why should they not here?

The statistics of crime in relation to education are generally defective, because they do not show the amount or degree of education. It is obvious, that in taking an account of crimes committed by educated persons, we should make a distinction between those who have learned only to read and write without going any farther, which is the case with a large number of those who attend school, and those who have received any education worthy of the name. Yet in the greater part of statistical accounts, crimes committed by those who can merely read and write, and that perhaps very imperfectly, are charged to the account of education. Since 1828 the French, and since 1836 the English tables, have classed the criminals as follows :

1. Those who can neither read nor write.
2. Those who can read only, or who can read and write imperfectly.
3. Those who can read and write well.
4. Those who have received instruction beyond that of a merely elementary school.

The results of returns under these classes have been thus far highly satisfactory and encouraging. For seven years ending with 1834, the convictions in France averaged 4,238, of whom only 65, or one in 65, belonged to the educated—being one in about 500,000 of the population. In England, for 1836, the number of persons accused of crime was 20,984; out of these, 191 were of the class who had received superior education. In Scotland, out of 2,922, 55 belonged to this class.

But these statements are almost too favorable to be relied on. Perhaps we can account for it by supposing that many crimes committed by the educated, the intelligent and the shrewd, remain undetected; and if detected, that their ingenuity sometimes enables them to escape conviction. Besides the crimes punished by the courts, are crimes against property or person, generally accompanied with some degree of violence; crimes which educated persons would be less likely to commit; while there are many violations of right by educated men, which a rigid morality would denounce as criminal, but which the law cannot punish because it cannot define them.

So far as the statistics go to show that there is less crime in the agricultural than there is in the manufacturing, seaport and city districts, they agree with what we should *a priori* expect the result to be. In the country generally, there is a greater equality of condition; less of that extreme distress which results from crowding together in cities; more kindness and fellow feeling; and many slight offences, especially if they are first offences, are passed over from charity or a hope of reformation. The man of bad character is known, marked



and watched—and there are not enough of them to herd together and form a class and keep each other in countenance.

On the other hand, the great cities (which Jefferson said were great sores upon the body politic) draw together the dissolute and idle from all quarters. It is there, too, that the wealth and enterprise of a country is concentrated, and where there is most wealth, of course will be the greatest number of crimes against property. And in a city there can be none of that compassion for a neighbor which in the country would lead to overlooking a fault. The smallest offence must be punished, without inquiring into the motives which led, or perhaps drove, the offender to commit it.

There is one circumstance connected with the abundance of crime which commends itself to the attention of all friends of education—to all philanthropists. It is this: that in the large cities, the crimes are committed by a separate class. The low and degraded form a separate class, and almost a separate caste by themselves. Accessions are constantly making to their number, but the greater part of them are born and educated to crime—they are hereditary criminals. Shut out of churches and schools, they live by preying upon society. Of God they know but the name. Society they consider their enemy and lawful plunder. The accounts of the ignorance, practical Atheism and debasement of this class in some cities, are hard to be believed by those who are used only to the peaceful and orderly communities of New England.

Although the most dreadful cases are probably in the large cities of the old world, yet our own cities present instances of the same sort, although here, from our youth as a nation, the evil may not be so confirmed and hard to combat. There seems to be an almost complete wall of separation between this class and what I may call the comfortable classes of society—the people of education, of middling property, and the wealthy. To associate with ignorance and vice is no pleasure to the educated and refined; and then, again, the very greatness of the evil and the fact of its long existence, are calculated to deter the timid from undertaking its removal.

We may say that we are not responsible for the existence of these evils. True we may not be directly. But if governments and the comfortable classes had done their duty in years past, the evil could not have reached its present magnitude. If the evil is to be reformed, it must be through the influences of religion and of education. But how is religion to be brought home to them? They are practically shut out of our churches, because they cannot come in upon an equality with others; and no man, with any just pride or feeling of independence, will come in on any other terms. If church-going be an es-

essential part of Christianity, then, in some large cities, a man with a family cannot afford to be a Christian unless he is worth his tens of thousands of dollars, and in the same proportion in smaller places. The attention of our churches is already awakened to the necessity of a change of their system. This is shown by the erection of many free churches in our cities within a few years. And in what mode can wealth be more nobly employed than by devoting it to the religious instruction of the poor.

We cannot doubt however, notwithstanding the gloomy details of the criminal calendar, that there has been a gradual and marked change effected in modern civilized society in relation to crime—and a change for the better. The character of the crimes committed has changed. Formerly—in generations past there was comparatively little security for person or property, except in the strong arm of the possessor. The offences were of the more violent kind. Murders, robberies and duels, &c., were more frequent. Now, whatever may be true as to the total number of crimes, those of this violent sort have diminished. Even if it is only a substitution of fraud and craft for violence, it is certainly a change for the better and for the peace of society.

The total number of crimes committed may not have diminished, or may even have increased. If statistics should prove this, there are many reasons why the friends of humanity should not be discouraged. The population of all the civilized nations is fast increasing. Their wealth has increased wonderfully. To promote the acquisition of wealth, property must be secured by the most stringent enactments, and a large class of the offences which makes such a figure in our criminal statistics, are of these modern offences against property. Legislatures in England and in this country almost every year make something a penal offence which was not so before.—This probably is the necessary result of the increase of wealth and civilization. Again, our credit system, while it has nearly superseded the old fashioned mode of robbery, yet presents innumerable temptations to other sorts of crime, temptations which we should rather rejoice that so many withstand, than grieve that a few fall.

Our modern police systems, too, are more perfect than those of former times. Fewer crimes escape detection in our large cities. All these combine to make the amount of crime appear to have increased of late years, while the fact may be very different, if we take into account the increase of population, and consider also, that a great number of the statute offences enumerated as crimes, are not such as necessarily involve any great degree of moral turpitude.

Without any reference, however, to statistics, it would seem as if we ought not to doubt as to the good effects of education in preventing misery and crime.

Even supposing that no direct moral instruction whatever is conveyed, can there be any doubt but that a good training of the intellect alone is favorable to morals? By pursuing a course of mere intellectual study by system, especially if it be pursued under the restraints of a public school or college, the student acquires habits of self-denial, obedience to rule, regularity and order, which are invaluable. And a well disciplined and well stored intellect is a great security against crime in another view. The man of education has pleasures and occupations for his leisure, which ignorance knows not of. He is thus protected from many of those vices into which the ignorant and idle fall from the mere love of excitement. We are so constituted as to need excitement of some sort. He who knows the value of intellectual pleasures, will not be so apt to resort to low company, or intoxicating drinks, for his amusements. And it is probably to the diffusion of education, and to a thorough education, that we must look for the delivery of our community from the scourge of intemperance.

Again, mere intellectual education, doubtless, promotes good morals, at least negatively, by preventing poverty, the extreme of which is a fruitful source of crime. How many crimes are traceable to the temptations arising from poverty. The tendency of education is to raise the man in the scale of being, to produce an ambition, and teach him ways of bettering his condition, to restrain improvidence and waste, to encourage forethought and prudence. So education improves the condition of the poor and removes temptation.

And although the present enormous accumulation of the wealth of civilized society, resulting from their superiority in knowledge, may in its first effect in the hands of the few, produce an increase of crimes against property, yet we should consider that the benefits of this wealth are constantly diffusing, by furnishing cheap necessities and comforts to the poor. The industrious laboring man of the present day, enjoys comforts which were luxuries even to the rich men of former ages. Thus wealth is slowly diffused and the situation of the poorer class improved.

The importance of providing recreation for the mind, of an intellectual character, is not sufficiently considered by us. As I said just now, we are so constituted that we need excitement, we need recreation. And if recreation of an innocent and intellectual kind is not furnished, the people will resort to mere animal and baser gratifications. This is a law of nature,

which laws made by man, will in vain attempt to change or counteract.

Hence the importance of cultivating a habit of reading and supplying the means of gratifying a taste for reading. It was remarked by a foreigner that very few of our large libraries are open to the public. In Europe the reverse is the practice. Hence too the importance of cultivating the practice of vocal and instrumental music, not merely for religious purposes, but for social improvement.

The only danger to be apprehended from moral instruction in our schools, arises from the spirit of sectarianism. That it may be perverted to sectarianism is true. But as all sects agree in the necessity of moral instruction, and as the attempt of any sect to teach its own creed, would inevitably tend to break up any system of public education, and to substitute in their stead sectarian or denominational schools which would leave a large portion of our country without any education at all, it is to be hoped that enough charity and forbearance will be found among the different churches to avoid this evil. We should endeavor to give the youth a sound intellectual and moral training, to teach them how to think, not what to think. We should not suffer ourselves to be haunted with the fear that they will think differently from ourselves on some subject of religion or politics. Parental influence will always incline the child to the opinions of the parent without much direct teaching. If we are well grounded in our opinions and believe them well founded in argument, we should not be afraid of our success. It is generally in proportion to our distrust of our opinions and to the weakness of the arguments on which we have adopted them that we are inclined to quarrel with those who doubt or deny them. And it is only by a full acknowledgement of the right of private judgment in others, and cultivating in our own hearts a spirit of charity towards them, that we can avoid the dangers which surround this question.

If moral instruction cannot be given without being made a means of proselytism on sectarian or political questions, I would say at once that it should be excluded.

Let us then consider for a few moments what portions of morals may with propriety be taught, and the best manner of teaching them; what should be taught, and how.

A full classification of the subject would of course include many things which could not well be taught to the classes of smaller children, such as compose the great majority in our schools. They could not appreciate, and would not profit by systematic instruction. There are certain classes of duties, too, in which in orderly old settled communities—children gain in-



struction at church and at home; their duties to God, their parents, and the family relations, the duty of justice to others, of honesty as to property, and of veracity. In orderly society there is a feeling of honor attached to the performance of some of these duties, and of meanness to their violation which is a great additional motive to doing right.

But, without much system, important instruction may be given in regard to the nature of conscience, and its development aided. They may be warned against the various modes by which conscience may be blinded or misled. The illusions produced by passion, interest, by looking to the end as justifying the means, may be rendered intelligible to all. But it may be more difficult and require more maturity in the scholar to understand and properly to judge of the variety of opinions respecting the moral nature of particular acts, produced by association and the complexity of actions. These can only be understood after considerable acquaintance with the operations and laws of the human mind.

There are some classes of duties which it is very difficult to define, and which law therefore can very seldom punish, but which are most essential to the happiness of society, and should receive our constant attention both in the school and out of it—I mean, our duties to others in regard to their feelings, if I may so express it. And it is in regard to this very class of duties, that the moral instruction of both young and old, in schools, colleges and at home, is probably most deficient. How many men who would scorn to injure their neighbors property, will yet make sport of injuring their feelings. If they can excite a quarrel, prejudice one person against another; if there are any subjects which they know to be peculiarly unpleasant, which the person addressed would like to have forgotten, anything calculated to produce a feeling of disgrace, or of physical or intellectual inferiority, or in any way to disturb his peace of mind, they perhaps take delight in suggesting it, in bringing it forward to public gaze, or if they do not absolutely take delight in it and do it purposely, they are not sufficiently cautious in guarding against it. “A blow with a word strikes deeper than a blow with a sword.” And when we reflect how much of the happiness of life is made up of little things, how much it depends upon attention to the feelings of others, we see the importance of attending to it in early education.

A disposition to attend to the wants and feelings of others, and promote their happiness, united to a certain degree of knowledge of the conventional usages of society, constitutes what we call manners or politeness. Considered merely as regards the child's chances of success in life, it would be worthy

of attention. But my object is to speak of it as a duty.—Even in the gravest concerns in life, the manner is frequently as important as the matter of the deed.

This same regard to the feelings of others of which I have been speaking, will also lead us to be cautious how we do or say anything to affect their reputation. Of all the tittle-tattle and slander that is circulating in the world, the probability is, that a very small portion originates from malice or a direct design to injure. A great deal of it originates from carelessness, from a desire to fall in with what we suppose to be the prevailing humor of the company present; but probably by far the greater part, from vacancy of mind—from want of acquaintance with other and more proper subjects of conversation. Education and extension of information will supply us with other means of occupying our minds and maintaining conversation, but it is only a regard for the feelings of others which can entirely restrain this mischievous propensity.

In regard to the manner of teaching morals to the very young, there can be but very little difference of opinion. Before they can understand a system, they must have the elementary notions upon which a system is founded. The moral sentiment is first to be called out, trained, and developed.—And in doing this we should follow the course of nature. A moral lesson suggested by some occasion in school life, will make a permanent impression upon a child and be remembered and recalled whenever a similar occasion presents itself; while a moral lesson upon the same subject, but unconnected with any present application, would be soon forgotten and would not be so likely to be recalled or suggest itself to the mind in case of need. *Alcott's Record of a School* and his *Conversations on the Gospels*, may suggest to a teacher many good ideas as to the best method of conducting conversations or remarks on this subject; and they have the advantage of being not imaginary but the record of real conversations which actually took place in his school.

“Moral instruction (says Wilm) ought to be less teaching than development; and it ought to aim less at conveying to the pupils some propositions as coming from the master and as forming a science invented by the genius of man, than at making them spring from the depths of his own consciousness.”

“If (says Sir James MacIntosh) we were to devise a method for infusing morality into the tender minds of youth, we should certainly not attempt it by arguments and rules, by definition and demonstration. We should certainly endeavor to attain our object by insinuating morals in the disguise of history, poetry and eloquence; by heroic examples, by pathet-

ic incidents, by sentiments that either exalt and fortify or soften and melt the human heart. If philosophical ingenuity were to devise a plan of moral instruction, these I think would be its outlines."

"As hieroglyphics preceded letters, so parables are older than arguments. And even now, if any one wishes to pour new light into any human intellect, and to do so expediently and pleasantly, he must proceed in the same way and call in the assistance of parables."—*Lord Bacon*

That these are the correct principles on which morals should be taught to the young, I suppose there can be very little doubt. To older scholars and classes, scientific treatises may be of advantage, but to mere children they would be incomprehensible. The conscience must be cultivated as occasions arise and the moral feelings called out and exercised upon the various events in school and home life before they can make themselves or can understand from others, the generalizations which make the moral code. Not that the teacher should wait for great occasions or displays of unusual passion or violence. The occasions will be constantly occurring.—Lessons upon characters and events in history are highly recommended by Kant and Wilm; and the influence of the selections in the reading books which are used in our schools, in forming the moral character of the pupils, can hardly be overrated. But above all, let not the teacher forget the influence of his own example.

With regard to the greater part of children, at least of those who do not see very bad examples at home, the teacher's greatest difficulty will probably be, not in teaching them what is right and what is wrong, but in persuading them to *do* right. And the difficulty is the same with older people.—Most of the duties of ordinary life are plain. We all know tolerably well what is right in any given case. In pronouncing an opinion on the conduct of others we seldom disagree. But how seldom do we ourselves do what we know to be right. We need motives to do right, we need to have our disposition to do right strengthened and confirmed. We need to enlighten conscience and give force to its decisions; and some times perhaps must call in the aid of the sanctions of religion.

We are too apt to appeal both with the old and young to motives of interest to induce them to do right. Honesty may be and no doubt is the best policy, and yet that may be a very mean motive for a man's being honest. There is a strong temptation to use this motive with children because they can easily be made to understand it. But is there no fear that we may make too much of this and lead them to undervalue other motives, so that other motives will have little influence over them? And will not the consequence be, that when they



come to grow up and find, as they often will, that they cannot succeed in some favorite project honestly—that honesty does not always secure wealth, but is very often an obstacle to it,—the foundation of their morality gives way, and they have not been accustomed to the control of better motives.

It may be questionable whether it would not be better to do nothing at all, than to appeal as often as we do to improper motives to encourage the young to what we deem a right course of action. It is a common practice to pay children for being good. And when they get to be children of a larger growth, we still appeal to the same motives. We tell them that doing good or a correct course will insure success in life. We make too much of prosperity, success and wealth. Economy and correct conduct will, it is true, secure the means of living, but those generally best succeed in obtaining wealth who make the most sacrifices of time and of personal comfort for it, and too often of honesty too. We should try to impress on them that true success, considered in relation to the great end of life, does not consist in making a show or in making a noise in the world; but that the approbation of conscience is better than all else.

One of the ancient moralists has represented human life as a sort of a market in which various commodities, health, wealth, literary distinction, military glory are exposed for sale, and we can have whatever we choose if we pay the price for it.

Mrs. Barbauld has taken up this idea and most eloquently expanded and illustrated it in a passage which I will quote.

“We should consider this world as a great mart of commerce where fortune exposes to our view various commodities, riches, ease, tranquillity, fame, integrity, knowledge. Everything is marked at a settled price. Our time, our labor, our ingenuity, are so much money which we are to lay out to the best advantage.

“Examine, compare, choose, reject; but stand to your own judgment; and do not, like children, when you have purchased one thing, repine that you do not possess another which you did not purchase.

“Such is the force of well-regulated industry, that a steady and vigorous exertion of our faculties, directed to one end, will generally insure success. Would you for instance, be rich? Do you think that single point worth the sacrificing everything else to?

“You may then be rich. Thousands have become so from the lowest beginnings, by toil and patience, diligence, and attention to the minutest articles of expense and profit. But you must give up the pleasures of leisure, of a vacant mind, of a free unsuspecting temper. If you preserve your integrity, it must be a coarse-spun and vulgar honesty. Those high and lofty notions of morals which you brought with you from the schools, must be considerably lowered, and mix with the baser alloy of a jealous and worldly-minded pru-



dence. You must learn to do hard if not unjust things ; and for the nice embarrassments of a delicate and ingenuous spirit, it is necessary for you to get rid of them as fast as possible. You must shut your heart against the Muses, and content to feed your understanding with plain household truths. In short, you must not attempt to enlarge your ideas, or polish your taste or refine your sentiments ; but must keep in one beaten track, without turning aside either to the right hand or left. ‘ But I cannot submit to drudgery like this, I feel above it.’ ’Tis well : be above it then ; only do not repine that you are not rich.

“ Is knowledge the pearl of price ? That too may be purchased—by steady application, and long solitary hours of study and reflection. Bestow these, and you shall be wise. But (says the man of letters) what a hardship it is that many an illiterate fellow, who cannot construe the motto of the arms on his coach, shall raise a fortune and make a figure, while I have little more than the common conveniences of life.

“ *Et tibi magna satis !* Was it in order to raise a fortune that you consumed the sprightly hours of youth in study and retirement ? Was it to be rich that you grew pale over the midnight lamp, and distilled the sweetness from the Greek and Roman spring ?

“ You have then mistaken your path, and ill employed your industry. ‘ What reward have I then for all my labors ? ’ What reward ! A large comprehensive soul, well purged from vulgar fears, and perturbations, and prejudices ; able to comprehend and interpret the works of man—of God : A rich flourishing, cultivated mind, pregnant with inexhaustible stores of entertainment and reflection. A perpetual spring of fresh ideas ; and the conscious dignity of superior intelligence. Good heaven ! and what reward can you ask besides ?

“ But is it not some reproach upon the economy of Providence that such a one, who is a mean dirty fellow should have amassed wealth enough to buy half a nation ? Not in the least. He made himself a mean dirty fellow for that very end. He has paid his health, his conscience, his liberty for it : and will you envy him for his bargain ? Will you hang your head and blush in his presence because he outshines you in equipage and show ? Lift up your brow with a noble confidence and say to yourself, I have not these things, it is true ; but it is because I have not sought, because I have not desired them ; it is because I possess something better. I have chosen my lot, I am content and satisfied.

“ You are a modest man—you love quiet and independence, and have a delicacy and reserve in your temper, which renders it impossible for you to elbow your way in the world, and be the herald of your own merits. Be content then with a modest retirement, with the esteem of your intimate friends, with the praises of a blameless heart, but resign the splendid distinctions of the world to those who can better scramble for them.

“ The man whose tender sensibility of conscience, and strict regard to the rules of morality make him scrupulous and fearful of offend-

ing, is often heard to complain of the disadvantage he lies under in every path of honor and profit. Could I but get over some nice points, and conform to the practice and opinion of those about me, I might stand as fair a chance as others for dignities and preferment. And why can you not? What hinders you from discarding this troublesome scrupulosity of yours, which stands so grievously in your way? If it be a small thing to enjoy a healthful mind, sound at the very core, that does not shrink from the keenest inspection; inward freedom from remorse and perturbation; unsullied whiteness and simplicity of manners; a genuine integrity

Pure in the last recesses of the mind;

if you think these advantages an inadequate recompense for what you resign, dismiss your scruples this instant, and be a slave-merchant, a parasite, or—what you please.”

But while we make persevering efforts for the promotion of education, we ought not, on the other hand, to be discouraged if we do not see any sudden or immediate results from our labors. The leaven of Christianity has been working in the world for eighteen hundred years, and the world is not yet Christian. If we make up our minds—as I think we must, without regard to statistics—that education does promote the welfare of a people as well as the good of the individual, we shall be prepared not to be alarmed by any apparent results of statistics. Most of the communities of the civilized world may be said to be in a transition state from ignorance to knowledge; and it is this fact, that their condition is a transition one, which enables us to account satisfactorily for many things which the tables of crime exhibit to us. They have lost that sort of contentedness and negative happiness which results from brute ignorance in the mass and a strong government in the hands of the few, and they have not yet reached that state of intellectual and moral knowledge where each man is a law unto himself. The elements of society are in conflict, and we cannot expect peace; but better, far better, is any condition—conflicts, wars, and rumors of wars—than the apparent peace of quiet and submissive ignorance. Individuals may suffer, humanity must gain.

So in regard to the wonderful increase of wealth in the present age. The first effect of the increase of wealth, and while it is in the hands of the few, is to offer temptations to crime; and we see, as a consequence, an increase of certain sorts of offences in wealthy communities. But may we not hope, that as wealth becomes diffused, as its beneficial effects are felt through all classes of society, as the luxuries of one age become the necessities of life to the next, as the poor obtain comforts in one age which before only wealth could pur-

chase, the class of crimes arising from disparity of wealth will diminish. Poverty and distress we know to be fruitful sources of those offences which our laws denounce as crimes. As these disappear before the progress of education and wealth, we may hope for a better state of society. If the diffusion of wealth is a blessing, then we must bear with whatever is necessary to this diffusion. So the principle of competition appears to be a necessary concomitant of the increase of wealth—yet it leads to a great amount of misery and crime. In this light, we should look upon these evils as temporary ones—as the undeniable consequences of our being in what I have called a transition state.

These considerations serve to show us that while we should not indulge unreasonable expectations from moral education, we need not be without hope. We cannot expect, and perhaps ought not to, to remove all temptations from the way of youth. That virtue is of but little worth which has been brought up as a tender plant in the shade, and which is only virtue because it has never been exposed. We should rather endeavor to cultivate a moral energy which may be acquainted with vice and misery, and yet not be contaminated by it.

In conclusion, I would say, that we ought not to be disappointed if we do not see immediately from our system the results which we may think we have a right to look for. It is unreasonable to expect that all our towns or all our districts should at once come up to the standard which we have fixed in our own minds as desirable and attainable. It is the policy of our laws, and the only policy consistent with the principles of a free government, to allow to towns and to districts the management of their own schools, subject to such general rules as the common good may require. Compulsion is against the spirit of our institutions and of our laws. We might by the exercise of the central power of the State, force upon a town or district a school somewhat in advance of what the town or district would otherwise establish. But it will probably be found to be the wisest course in the end, to rely upon means of persuasion, to endeavor to influence the minds of the people by argument and information, and we shall thus make a progress peaceful and sure, though slow.

F. R. POTTER,

Comm'r of Pub. Schools.

KINGSTON, R. I., January, A. D. 1852.

Table No. 1, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	RECEIVED FROM					Total Resources.	Expended for Instruction.	Expended on School Houses.	Voted this year.
	State Treasury	Raised by Town.	Rate Bills.	Registry Tax &c.	Unexpended last year.				
Providence,	7,081 53	33,000 00		1,008 05		41,089 58	40,553 30	7,912 87	34,000 00
North-Providence,	1,857 50	3,500 00	200 00	425 20		5,982 70	4,000 00	242 57	3,500 00
Smithfield,	3,045 46	3,000 00	2,359 22	423 00		8,827 68	8,827 68	1,600 00	3,000 00
Cumberland,	1,635 41	2,000 00		207 00	102 66	3,945 07		855 00	2,000 00
Seituate,	1,348 42	321 06	406 92	465 42	245 49	2,787 31	2,396 18	20 00	321 06
Cranston,	1,226 34	800 00		295 45		2,321 79	2,320 00	4,400 00	1,200 00
Johnston,	825 97	500 00		109 25		1,434 22	1,182 28	1,400 00	500 00
Glocester,	745 92	200 00		211 42	216 91	1,374 25	974 26		200 00
Foster,	760 67	181 11	749 77	171 36		2,109 99	1,704 42	650 00	181 11
Burrillville,	678 83	400 00	300 00	241 99		1,620 82	1,620 82	1,160 00	300 00
Newport.	2,472 42	3,000 00	537 26	329 00	143 94	6,483 12	5,628 28	521 86	3,000 00
Portsmouth,	524 88	200 00	1,040 92	29 00	67 15	1,861 35	1,861 35	170 00	200 00
Middletown,	277 77	150 00	515 67	48 05	79 36	1,070 85	914 85	135 50	100 00
Tiverton,	1,132 27	1,500 00	75 00	467 30	432 66	3,607 23	3,607 23	75 00	1,500 00
Little Compton,	452 53	200 00	1,130 19	19 00	43 10	1,844 82	1,844 82		120 00
New Shoreham,		100 00	250 00	40 00		370 00			100 00
Jamestown,	92 91	23 00	112 11	14 77		242 79	242 79		23 00
South Kingstown,	961 00	460 00		334 41	226 76	1,982 17			200 00
Westerly,	635 58	200 00		94 26	288 52	1,218 36	929 84	320 00	450 00
North Kingstown,	933 59	300 00	596 61	106 70	75 80	2,012 70	1,730 98		268 05
Exeter,	804 16	148 92	8 00	79 25	328 83	1,040 33	704 00	315 00	125 00
Charlestown,	351 35	83 65	67 51	37 15	169 22	708 88	583 68		140 81
Hopkinton,	609 13	140 81		60 00	48 05	809 94	809 94		120 00
Richmond,	491 16	120 00	820 53	165 85		1,597 54	1,597 54	3,625 00	675 00
Warwick,	2,178 99	600 00		262 50		3,041 49	3,017 67		381 72
Coventry,	1,145 15	381 72		67 93	375 93	1,594 80	675 00		115 00
East Greenwich,	463 65	115 00	50 00	49 00	40 00	717 65			113 42
West Greenwich,	471 85	113 42		36 22	180 23	801 72			
Bristol,	1,146 06	2,250 00	654 98	499 03	124 93	4,675 00	4,228 76	500 00	2,250 00
Warren,	641 09	1,300 00		24 01		1,965 10	1,967 26		1,500 00
Barrington,	176 00	200 00	200 70	5 73	45 33	627 76	549 18		200 00
	35,167 59	55,488 69	10,075 39	6,327 30	3,235 17	109,767 01	94,471 96	23,902 80	



Table No. 2, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	Districts		School Houses			Scholars.				Teach'rs	
	Organized.	Not organized.	Owned by town	By District.	By Proprietors.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Average.	Males.	Females.
Providence,						3,121	3,743	6,864	5,742	12	96
North Providence	10			10		953	812	1,763	990	8	17
Smithfield	36			24	11	1,139	1,080	2,311	1,762	23	23
Cumberland	20			17		654	653	1,307	971	12	21
Scituate	17			17		497	328	825	545	13	9
Cranston	11			11		548	346	894	597	5	10
Johnston						356	234	478	420	10	5
Glocester	13			12	1	237	162	422	299	3	10
Foster	19			11	8	303	231	534	341	16	8
Burrillville	16			16		495	332	737	518	7	15
Newport			2		6	642	587	1,229	950	5	12
Portsmouth	7			7		196	122	318	219	6	1
Middletown	5			5		106	57	163	103	5	3
Tiverton	17			16	1	548	430	978	708	10	12
Little Compton	9	1		9	1	258	171	429	202	9	10
New Shoreham	5			5		179	208	392	188	4	1
Jamestown	2		2			37	38	75	40	2	2
South Kingstown	20	1		18	3	502	383	885	639	14	8
Westerly	10			10		299	207	506	410	9	2
North Kingstown	15			12	3	368	271	639	459	9	8
Exeter	13			13		313	127	338	236	10	2
Charlestown	6	1		5	3	138	110	248	166	7	5
Hopkinton	12			12		304	242	546	378	10	1
Richmond	13			12	1	212	178	390	273	12	1
Warwick	14	1		12	2	675	638	1,313	908	11	11
Coventry	18			14	3	383	275	658	413	12	5
East Greenwich	1	4	5			243	120	366	233	5	2
West Greenwich											
Bristol			7			370	264	634	579	4	10
Warren						175	156	331	321		
Barrington	3			3		72	66	139	108	3	3
	312	8	16	271	42	14,133	13,521	26,712	19,719	256	313

Table No. 3, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	Apportionment of 85,000 under new census.	Whole No. Scholars.	Average attendance	STATISTICS FROM NEW CENSUS.								Attended School within the year.	Cannot read and write.
				Population under fifteen and over four.	Population under four.	Population under fifteen.	Idiots.	Deaf and Dumb.	Insane.	Blind.			
Providence	9,716 06	6,864	5,742	9,150	4,136	13,286	3 7	121	9		6,706	879	
North Providence	1,857 50	1,763	990	1,743	797	2,540	1 3	4	2		1,310	433	
Smithfield	2,759 19	2,311	1,792	2,701	1,072	3,773	1 5	4	4		2,281	469	
Cumberland	1,578 87	1,307	971	1,472	687	2,159	3 2	9			1,234	301	
Sellwate	1,026 74	825	515	1,021	382	1,404	2 1	2	2		995	65	
Cranston	1,115 96	894	497	1,072	454	1,526	5 4	4			863	91	
Johnston	752 51	478	320	751	278	1,029	2 1		1		617	3	
Glocester	623 80	422	299	593	260	853	3 4	4	3		691	66	
Foster	475 35	534	341	457	193	650	10 3	4	2		495	13	
Burrillville	865 86	737	618	822	362	1,184	2 2	1			845	92	
Newport	2,122 23	1,229	950	2,102	860	2,002	4 4	16	5		1,556	212	
Portsmouth	419 02	318	219	448	165	614	5 3	4			442	31	
Middletown	189 41	163	103	478	81	259	1	1			163	1	
Tiverton	1,302 44	978	708	1,274	507	1,781	24 2	3	8		1,208	309	
Little Compton	356 87	429	202	288	100	488	1	2			503		
New Shoreham	369 81	392	188	382	123	506	6 4	4			402	8	
Jamestown	67 28	75	40	62	30	92	1	2			69		
South Kingstown	961 69	885	639	952	363	1,315	1	5	1		929	71	
Westerly	663 29	606	410	649	258	907	3 5	3			534	40	
North Kingstown	711 56	639	459	715	258	973	5 4	7	5		778	111	
Exeter	432 20	338	230	407	184	591	1 8	4	6		406	42	
Charlestown	247 18	248	166	252	86	338	2 2		1		243	13	
Hopkinton	655 24	546	378	660	236	896	5 1	3			691	39	
Richmond	418 30	390	273	416	156	572	1	1			368	9	
Warwick	1,755 86	1,312	908	1,793	608	2,401	3 2	9			1,385	85	
Coventry	841 00	658	413	841	309	1,150	1 1	6	1		213	99	
East Greenwich	544 82	366	233	563	182	745	3	1	1		511	86	
West Greenwich	324 70		311	183	444	2	2	4	2		201		
Bristol	1,080 86	634	579	1,074	404	1,478	6	5			995	141	
Warren	583 31	331	321	567	232	799	4 1	10	3		555	43	
Barrington	148 45	139	108	143	60	203					142	1	
	26,712	19,719	13,959	13,898	47,857	108,63	233	55	28,331	3,744			

## APPENDIX No. 1.

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### NORMAL DEPARTMENT IN BROWN UNIVERSITY.

LETTER FROM PROF. GREENE.

PROVIDENCE, February 12, 1852.

HON. E. R. POTTER :

DEAR SIR :—You ask me to give you information respecting the organization, course of instruction, and present condition and prospects of the Normal Department of Brown University. In compliance with this request, permit me to premise that the enterprise is yet in its infancy,—the first class having been formed at the commencement of the present collegiate year. Hence little can be said of results. It promises well. All that could be reasonably hoped, during so short a period, has been realized. The department is intended to fit teachers for the *practical* duties of the school room. The course of instruction, the drill exercises, all tend towards this point.

Two things are contemplated in the plan of organization. Of these that which is peculiar to the department is the professional training which the course in Didactics is intended to give.

The second is the literary and scientific discipline which the various courses afford to those who seek for situations in the higher grades of schools. Those who are candidates for degrees are, in the regular order of study, pursuing these courses. To such, the Normal department is a kind of professional school, to fit them for their chosen occupation. But to those who come mainly to study Didactics, and yet wish to extend their literary and scientific researches, without obtaining a degree, the collegiate courses afford peculiar advantages. The student is placed at once in a literary atmosphere. He is in daily contact with scholars. He has access to a large and

valuable library. The principles of Chemistry and Natural Philosophy are illustrated by an extensive and well chosen apparatus. History, English literature, Rhetoric, and English Composition, are all taught by able professors. And if he chooses to pursue one or more of the languages, he has the privilege of doing it. All these can be attended to in connection with Didactics.

But that the advantages of the department may be enjoyed still more widely, a second class, of a more popular character, has been organized. This class is attending a course of lectures and drill exercises at the lecture room of the High School. It is opened for those teachers, male or female, who seek for situations in Grammar and Primary Schools, and who have already made sufficient progress in the elementary branches to fit them for their profession. The exercises here are purely didactic. The principles of the art of teaching are distinctly stated and illustrated before the class; and to render the work more effective, the members themselves are called out individually to give elementary lessons,—regarding the class for the time as their school. The skill and efficiency with which these exercises are conducted become, at once, a test of ability, aptness to teach, self possession, and power to command attention. This class, thus far, has been chiefly composed of ladies, mostly from Providence and the surrounding towns. It consists at present of upwards of sixty members.

The course of instruction in both classes is, in its general spirit, the same; but in form it differs, to adapt it to the different degress of attainmeht of the two. All instructions are given by lectures and practical exercises. The aim of these lectures and exercises is to reach the elementary steps in every branch taught in our schools which can be most easily and readily comprehended by the child. It has also been our aim to determine not only what faculties of the child should be first addressed, but also the point of view from which instruction should be presented to them.

Every subject may be said to have an *interior* and an *exterior* point of view, from which it may be examined. There is a *vital* element and an outward *manifestation*, which is only an unfolding of the former. He only can be said to comprehend a subject who examines it from its spirit and intent. When approached from this interior point of view, a subject does not lose its identity though it



assume a variety of forms ; whereas, when viewed through some outward manifestation, it is usually seen only through a particular form and that but dimly. For example, the learner is told by the formalist in Arithmetic, that he must place units under units, tens under tens, hundreds under hundreds, &c. Why he should do so, he cannot tell. He is not made to *feel* the fitness of it, but obeys simply the *letter* of the rule. And in Addition, he must begin at the right hand, and add up the first column, writing underneath the entire sum, if it do not exceed nine, but writing only the right-hand figure and *carrying* the left to the next upper column, if the sum be greater than nine. To the learner thus taught, all these directions become in-wrought into the very idea of Addition, as though they were vital to it. He supposes this the only mode of adding : and that any deviation from it is a violation of *essential* principles. Now let the same learner become familiar with every feature of the Arabic system of Notation as an ingenious invention—let him see how it can, with a few characters, represent all possible numbers—let him see by contrasting it with other methods, as the Roman, for example, what unparalleled facilities it affords for carrying on arithmetical operations—let him understand the fundamental principle that wholes are added to wholes when we unite all their corresponding parts—and he will at once see that it will make, essentially, no difference whether we begin at the right hand, or the left, or in the middle, or whether we add *up* or *down*, if so be that *all* the corresponding parts are united, and each figure has the *place* which its value demands. If, at length, it should be found by repeated experiments that it is more convenient to begin at the right hand, that *convenience* will then be appreciated, but appreciated as a convenience, and not as something essential. Now when the learner looks at Addition from this point of view, he will see, whatever may be the mode of adding, that every method is pervaded by one and the same principle, viz : that wholes, however large, are added to wholes when we unite their corresponding parts, and that it is the crowning excellence of the Arabic method of Notation, that it represents all numbers in corresponding parts, as units, tens, &c., and that these parts, taken separately, are small numbers, and easily comprehended.

This interior view is capable of indefinite illustrations drawn from Arithmetic, Reading, Grammar, History, Geography, and in fact, all

the branches taught in our schools. It has been the chief aim of our course in Didactics, to open and unfold the methods by which the various branches may be presented from this point of view, to children. In no department has it been found necessary to labor more assiduously than in that of Reading. The elements of Reading, if taught at all, are too apt to be exhibited in the form of rules which cannot be readily comprehended, much less exemplified by the pupil. They are usually either a dead letter, or are exemplified only by a servile imitation of the teacher's voice. Now he who looks at a subject from this interior point, needs no rule,—the *thought* and *feeling* of the writer is his rule; in other words, the rule is to give just such an expression of the spirit and life of the subject as one would naturally give to it himself, were he to embody it in his own words.

Two things are needed to secure good reading. Foremost and chief, is a delicate appreciation of the sentiment to be expressed; and then such a training of the vocal organs as will secure a forcible, clear, distinct, and musical utterance of that sentiment.

He, therefore, who would teach Reading well, must dwell much upon the thought; he must cultivate the "mind's eye" of the child, that he may see what the writer saw, feel what the writer felt, and then express these thoughts and feelings without restraint. In so doing, the pupil, by his own voice, exemplifies the rules of good Reading, at first without knowing it; at length, his own utterance furnishes him with the rules for stress, force, inflection, quantity, rate, pitch, emphasis, cadence, modulation, &c. &c. But all this must be under the guidance of an experienced teacher, who can himself appreciate and exemplify all these qualities of good Reading, and draw the attention of the learner to what his own voice illustrates. Hence, the necessity of such Normal exercises as will prepare teachers to take up Reading from the right point of view. The first error in teaching children to read, lies at the very foundation. The first lesson is usually wrong. Instead of presenting a child at the outset with a letter, as a mere form for him to look at, and name, the teacher should give him an elementary sound and require him to utter it,—then another, and so on. The letter should afterwards be given as a symbol of the sound, to be associated with it, at first as an aid to his memory, and finally, as a permanent representation. In this way,

the letter means something; and in combining letters into syllables and words, their utility is readily appreciated.

The next error lies in an almost total neglect of the *thought*, in the mechanical process which the pupil must go through in spelling out the words of his reading lesson. Hence that stiff, broken, school-boy style of reading which is so disagreeable. It lacks soul—is wholly devoid of thought. To improve it, the unskilful teacher urges the child to “speak up loud,” and “read faster,” thus involving him in two other errors,—if possible, worse than the first,—and that, too, without correcting the first. The child’s voice must, as soon as possible, be placed under the supremacy of thought; then will this mechanical utterance yield to a life-like and graceful expression of the sentiment of the writer. Our exercises in the classes have aimed to exemplify this mode of teaching Reading.

I have thus given you a few specimens of the methods which have been adopted in our course in Didactics. Suffice it to say, that similar methods are adopted in all the school branches. We have not been through with an entire course in any one; this would be impossible in the time allowed us. But we have given specimens of what may be called elementary teaching in the various departments of each. It has been our aim to show how this kind of teaching should be conducted, in a suitable number of examples, and leave to the members the work of applying it universally. We have aimed to make them *independent* teachers, not leaning servilely upon the text-book. Those who give a good elementary lesson without a text-book, will be most likely to use that instrument to the best advantage. Such is the course of instruction, so far as I can represent it in this short space. It should be added, that my connection with the Public Schools of Providence, enables me to give the members of the classes peculiar facilities for improvement.

What cannot be seen in exercises conducted before the Normal class, since the members are not children, but only supposed to be for the time, may be witnessed in reality in the different grades of our Public Schools. To these schools, all the members of the class have free access. Here they can witness a practical exemplification of the principles to which their attention has been called.

Upwards of eighty persons have availed themselves of the opportunity which these exercises afford, since the opening of the Depart-

ment last September. It will be seen from this brief sketch of the organization and condition of these classes, that a wider range for culture and mental improvement is here afforded than in any Normal School in the country. He who would with a liberal education prepare himself for teaching in Academies and High Schools, has here an opportunity for so doing. He, again, who would pursue a shorter yet thorough course, can accommodate himself to his wishes and circumstances. And yet, again, he who wishes to combine the advantages of the Normal School and Teachers' Institute, may attend a course of lectures during the autumn and spring.

Again, it will be seen that the exercises appropriately belonging to the Department are strictly didactic, not academic, the latter being furnished by the college courses. The question is not, have you attended to such a branch? but, how would you teach it to a beginner? How to one more advanced? What means would you adopt to secure order and thrift in a school? To inspire the pupil with enthusiasm? To create a love for study? To raise him to a perception of what is noble, and worthy of his aspiration? And yet, it is obvious that every branch taken from this point of view assumes a new and peculiar interest, which leads to a far better comprehension of the branch itself, than when learned merely as a school task. A task accomplished simply for the recitation room, is often only half learned; it is committed to the memory, rather than the understanding. But when learned by one who feels himself responsible for an explanation of every idea it contains, it must be thoroughly learned. He must know not only the lesson itself, but its various relations to collateral subjects. He cannot slight it, and then expect to teach it successfully. Hence, although the student, on entering this department, is supposed already to *know* what he is now learning to *teach*; yet he will find his knowledge of the various branches greatly improved from the new impulses under which they are reviewed.

The tests to which candidates are usually subjected in examinations, make known only their literary qualifications. Little is learned of one's aptness to teach, power to interest and secure attention, ability to control, fruitfulness in expedients, skill in adapting instruction to age and capacity of children, and force and impressiveness of illustration. But it is obvious that these didactic exercises, in no inconsiderable degree, test the capacity of the candidate in all these.—



Hence the advantage which school committees and supervisors may derive from an acquaintance with the members of these classes, and the progress which they have made in all the characteristics of the good teacher.

It is equally obvious, that the Department will afford peculiar facilities to those who aspire to good situations, and would be placed in a position to make themselves known. I am often applied to for suitable persons to fill all classes of vacancies, from the High School down to the Common District School.

Hoping that this imperfect outline may in a measure answer your inquiries,

I remain, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

SAMUEL S. GREENE,  
Prof. of Didactics in Brown University.

## APPENDIX No. 11.

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### EVENING SCHOOLS.

LETTER FROM REV. E. M. STONE.

PROVIDENCE, Feb. 11, 1852.

HON. ELISHA R. POTTER :—

DEAR SIR :—When I promised, at your request, to prepare an article on Evening Schools for your Annual Report, it was my intention to have given to the subject the detailed consideration its importance demands. From the fulfilment of this intention I am precluded by an unusual press of duties, and at this eleventh hour can only say a few words as an expression of my unabated interest in a class of institutions that must, from necessity, fill an important place in the educational movements of the day.

In 1849 I prepared, at the instance of your predecessor, Hon. Henry Barnard, an account of Public Evening Schools in this country, embracing notices of all that were then known to be in operation. This account was published in his final report to the General Assembly. Since then, similar schools have been established in New Orleans, Newburyport, (Mass.) Portsmouth, (N. H.) Portland, (Me.), and several other places : all of which have fulfilled the expectations of their friends.

Eighteen years have passed away since the first Public Evening Schools were opened in the United States, and the conviction of their utility has been gradually gaining strength in the public mind. The National Convention of the friends of education held in Philadelphia in 1849, and again in 1850, one of the most intelligent bodies that has been convoked in this country on any occasion, took up this subject as one of commanding importance, and at the recommendation of a committee who, by Prof. Hart, their chairman, made an interesting report on the subject, adopted the following resolution :

“ *Resolved*, That this Convention recommends to the earnest con-

sideration of the community in the several States, the propriety of establishing generally, free Evening Schools for adults and for young persons who are not in attendance upon the day schools.”

From the report to which I have referred, I transcribe and enclose several paragraphs embracing statements worthy of profound consideration.

These statements confirm the opinion I have long entertained, that something should be done to meet wants that are not met by our day schools. In every manufacturing village are to be found many children and youth like those described in these extracts. There is also another class, a large portion of them foreigners. They are ignorant, often, of the simple rudiments of learning, and are precluded, by age, pride, or false shame, from entering a primary class in our public day schools. They form, to an extent, a distinct order, and if educated at all, must be approached in a way that does not arouse either of these hostile feelings. It is easier to form an evening school of fifty boys fourteen or fifteen years of age, who cannot read and write, than to induce five of that number to attend a day school.

In a manufacturing State, like Rhode Island, having so many of this class among its population, these considerations bear with great force. Evening Schools should be established in every village for the benefit of its juvenile operatives, and of all others who need their advantages. It is not merely the dictate of philanthropy, but of enlightened policy, to encourage in such the spirit of intellectual culture,—never, indeed, losing sight of their moral and religious development. Intelligence is essential to the growth of the morals of the young, as it is to the improvement of their manners; and to permit a generation to grow up among us without education sufficient to qualify them to transact ordinary business, or to give them correct ideas of our political institutions, is to violate a principle upon which their permanency rests.

In conclusion, I have only time to add, that the efficiency of Evening Schools may be greatly promoted by the appointment of an outdoor assistant for each school, whose duty it shall be to collect scholars, visit their homes to ascertain the cause of every absence, and to gain the co-operation of parents and employers in securing a regular attendance.

Very sincerely your friend,

EDWIN M. STONE.

## EXTRACT FROM REPORT ON EVENING SCHOOLS.

BY PROF. HART, OF PHILADELPHIA.

While speaking of the large proportion of the population that now, in many states and cities, attend public schools, we are apt to forget that not more than one-third of the whole number attending school ever advance beyond the Primary. The High School and the Grammar Schools are, indeed, open to all ; but all, unfortunately, have not the leisure to advance to those open doors. Idleness and vagrancy, no doubt, contribute to this result ; yet, for the most part, it is stern necessity, work—want of bread—that compels more than two-thirds of the children of the public schools, to complete their schooling in the Primary. Having barely learned to read and write, and perhaps knowing something of the first four rules of Arithmetic, they are taken by their parents to assist in the mill, the workshop or the factory,—or to become errand boys and news boys. Experience has shown that a large number of these boys, thus early withdrawn from school, would, at the age of ten to twelve, and even much later, be glad to avail themselves of any opportunity of pursuing their studies, that did not interfere with the daily pursuits by which their subsistence is procured. Wherever night schools have been opened a large number of such boys have been among the applicants for admission. If there be any class of the community that more than others have a claim upon the public for special means of instruction, it is those who, through a grinding necessity, are unable to attend an ordinary day school, even though it be entirely free.

There is another important aspect of this case. The attention of those engaged in the cause of education has been occupied so exclusively with the instruction of the young, that we had well nigh forgotten the existence among us of an ignorant *adult* population. The number of illiterate adults will be yet further and largely increased by the constant tide of emigration from abroad.

Some isolated and not uninteresting efforts have been made, heretofore, to introduce the number of ignorant adults by the establishment of schools expressly for them. But it is not until very recently, that anything like a general effort, in this direction, has been attempted.



Within the last two or three years, in several of our large cities, as New York, Cincinnati, Providence, and Philadelphia, evening schools have been opened on a large scale, for the instruction, in part, of those beyond the proper age to attend the day schools. The special cause, which has led to this new impulse, has been the alarming increase, of late, of riotous and disorderly night assemblages in the streets of our cities. In nearly every city, there exist, at present, large gangs of disorderly young men, more or less organized, who nightly disturb the public peace. These young men, it has been found, in very many instances, were entirely unacquainted with the first rudiments of learning, unable to read and write, and thus shut out from the ordinary sources of improvement and of innocent recreation. It is believed that many of these persons are, in the first instance, driven into street-prowling and other disorderly practices, by a mere physical impulse—the love of action—and by force of the social principle. The case has been stated with great clearness by the Hon. Judge Kelly, of Philadelphia, in an address delivered before the House of Refuge, in December, 1849.

“From whom, and what, is Philadelphia now suffering most?—Not from the increasing frequency of the perpetration of crimes of the higher grades—these increase not in the ratio of the growth of our population;—nor from organized gangs of skilled and hardened felons, for, inefficient as our multiplex police departments are, our borders are now, as they have ever been, comparatively free from these pests of cities. Riot and tumult are the evils under which we groan. The wayward and restless youths who congregate at the street corners, hang about hose and engine houses, and throng the places of cheap and vulgar amusement in which the city abounds, are our terror at home and disgrace abroad. For these, if unchecked we are all ready to predict a career of crime and punishment.—The project of establishing an armed police to hold them in subjection, finds favor with many, and may yet be necessary. In Europe, such lads would constitute the strength of the government. Full of health and animal spirits, and pursuing novelty and adventure with the ardor of youth, they would be fascinated by the roving life of the soldier, and follow the recruiting sergeant. The standing armies of England, and the States of Europe, absorb enough of this class to overawe the remainder. Availing themselves of the impulses of youth, despotic governments discipline those who, with us, would be the “dangerous class,” and rely upon them for the support of law and order; and, if we fail to promote the peaceable and profitable action of these impulses, an armed police, the nucleus of a standing army, will be the consequence of our neglect. Pardon me for draw-

ing an illustration from your own homes. Nothing essential to comfort is wanting there. Your extensive libraries add to the charms of family intercourse. The chiselled marble and glowing canvass grace your walls. And, at your bidding, music sends over your social group her enlivening and purifying influence. Yet, despite these abundant means of domestic enjoyment, your growing children weary of home. You gladly gather their young friends around them in the evening party ; you welcome gratefully the card which invites them to an evening of merriment under the roof of a judicious friend : and you open to them the concert and the lecture room, and every other means of virtuous enjoyment offered by society. The love of novelty is natural to your children. By providing amusements, which are harmless, if not profitable for them, you hope to retain their confidence and love, and save them from the allurements of folly and vice. Your conduct is prompted by your parental instincts, and sanctioned by your experience. And it would be well for society to follow your example. The children of the poor and ignorant differ not essentially from yours. Their appetite for pleasure is as keen, they are not more sedate, nor has nature given them greater power of enduring trial or resisting temptation.

Crime is not the inevitable consequence of ignorance, but they have close and important relations. And I believe the day is not far distant, when the commonwealth will be constrained, not only to offer a generous elementary education to all her children, but to treat the failure of a parent to secure its advantages to a child as a forfeiture of parental rights. I had occasion recently to request some information on this subject from the heads of our penal establishments, the Clerk of the Quarter Sessions of the County, and the gentlemen who have held the office of Prosecuting Attorney for Philadelphia during the last five years. The replies were all concurrent ; and the information they furnished cannot fail to interest in this connection, though it was obtained for another and different purpose. The statistics of the Penitentiary, and the convict department of the County Prison, show that less than two per cent. of the whole number of convicts are thoroughly educated. Of one hundred and forty-nine prisoners received into the Eastern Penitentiary from this city and county, between January 1st, 1846, and December 17, 1849, twenty-eight had received a tolerable elementary education ; twenty-three could neither read nor write ; twenty-five could "read a little ;" and seventy-three could read and write imperfectly.\* During the years 1847 and 1848, three hundred and thirty-five prisoners were received into the convict department of the County Prison, of whom one hundred and twenty-six could neither read nor write ; ninety could "read a little ;" one hundred and sixteen could read and write

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\*Those marked in the above list as able to read and write are so registered upon their answers to questions at the time of their reception. It seldom amounts to more than being able to read indifferently, and write very poorly ; *not one in twenty* being able to write a fair and connected letter.—*Note from Thomas Scattergood Warden. E. P.*

imperfectly;\* and three were well educated. Of twenty-one persons under the conviction of riot in the County Prison, on the 19th of December, 1849, eight could not read; three could read, but not write; seven could read and write, but knew nothing of arithmetic; and three could read, write and cipher. No one of them had a good elementary education. Of two hundred and thirty-seven boys over thirteen years of age, received into the White Department of Refuge, between January 1st, 1847 and December 17th, 1849, forty-two could read well: one hundred and fifty three could "read a little;" and forty-two could not read at all. The Clerk of the Sessions says that a large majority of the persons held to bail in the court for riot, and other offences involving a breach of the peace, are "destitute of education, being unable to write their names to the bail-bond." Messrs. Wharton, Webster, and Reed, who have in turn prosecuted the pleas of the commonwealth in this county for five years, agree that, with few exceptions, this class of offenders are "almost utterly uneducated." Nor do these facts stand alone. No graduate of the Philadelphia High School is known to have been charged with the commission of a crime; and, though I have made efforts to discover the fact, if it was so, I have not learned that a single person who has completed the excellent course of instruction given in our Grammar Schools, has ever been tried or arraigned in a criminal court.†

Let me not be misunderstood. I am not maintaining that man is wholly the creature of circumstances; or that instruction in reading writing, and arithmetic, in grammar, geography, and mathematics, will purify his nature or defend him against all the assaults of folly and sin. What I mean to say is, that comprehension of and facility in, these branches of learning, elementary as they are, open to him vast fields of profit, pleasure, and advancement, from which his ignorant brethren are excluded; and that the fact that a boy has passed years in the Grammar School, proves that his childhood was not homeless; that he had friends to watch over him, to encourage and counsel him, to guard him from vicious associations, to stimulate his emulation, and gratify his appetite for refined and profitable pleasures. Did our parental and fraternal sympathies extend beyond our homes, we would oftener pity than condemn the turbulent youth of our

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\*Of these not more than one-fourth can be said to do more than write their names.—*First Annual Report of the Board of Inspectors.*

†For nearly two years I was prosecuting attorney in this county, and from the period when I went into office down to the present moment, comprising an interval of five years, I have paid much attention to the working of the criminal system. From being, during the whole of this period, a Director of the Public Schools, my consideration has naturally been employed on the question how far public crime is affected by public education: and at one time I compiled a tabular statement of my observations on this particular point. I need now only give you the result, which is that, whether in prison waiting trial, or in prison after trial, charged with riot or turbulence, I have never known a single pupil of the High School. I can go further, and say that, in all the cases in which recognizances of bail were taken, and in which the defendant was produced for the purpose of writing his name, and in all cases which by any test the educational position of the defendant could be evolved, I never knew, with but one exception, of a pupil of the public schools, of a higher grade than the third division, concerned.—*Note from Francis Wharton, Esq.*

suburbs. Go with me to one of their homes ; not to that of the boy who never knew his parents, and has grown from infancy on the rough charities of the poor ; nor the son of the destitute widow, who, toiling wearily for food, clothes, and rent, reluctantly leaves her boy throughout the day to his own guidance, and the companionship afforded by the alley in which they live ; nor the son of the inebriate, who labors by day only to purchase madness for the night. Such, though far from being exaggerated cases, do not illustrate the point under consideration so well as the apprentices of our well-conditioned mechanics. Many of these are worthy farmers' sons. The father's well-tilled farm will support the family ; but is too small to be again divided. The son must, therefore, carve out his own fortune. He is now a well-grown boy, and, having enjoyed the example of his father's temperance and industry, the care and counsel of his fond mother, and such slender means of education as the wayside school affords, he turns his steps towards the city, as the field of widest and most varied enterprise. His object is the acquisition of a trade, by which he may gain an honest and independent livelihood. When his heart swells with recollections of home, he turns to the future and thinks of the happy time to come, when as a successful master workman, his roof shall shelter, and his means maintain his aged parents. Finding employment, he enters on his apprenticeship. In his master he also finds a friend. Their contract, however, is a mere bargain, from which both parties expect advantage. The boy binds himself to give years of willing and obedient labor as the consideration for food, clothing, and instruction in the art and mystery of the calling of his choice. The master—a kind-hearted man, and good mechanic—is cheered in the hope of making something more than a bare living for the little family with which God has blessed him. His home is in a respectable neighborhood. Embellished by few luxuries, it is well supplied with the means of substantial comfort. The snug parlor, darkened at other times, is opened to the family on Sunday, or when a few friends visit the master's thrifty helpmate. In the rear of the parlor is the little dining-room, warmed by the kitchen stove, around which the family gathers in the evening for the gossip of the day and neighborhood. In the attic is the boy's clean and well-made bed. The little room, though well finished, is without grate or fireplace. To warm it through the long evenings of the winter, when books or intercourse with young companions might engage him, would involve the master in the purchase of a stove, fuel, and lights ; a serious item of expenditure, which the custom of the trade would not sanction, and the exigencies of the case do not require ; indeed, the boy does not expect it. He knows that he enjoys more comforts than most of his class, and is grateful for them. He cannot, however, let his love of quiet and study be as keen as it may, confine himself in his cold chamber through the long winter evenings. True he is not denied—nay, he is sometimes welcomed—to a place in the "sitting room." He need not, however, attempt to read there ; nor can he join as equal participant in the conversations. Feeling restraint from the presence of the heads



of the family, he soon discovers that he too is a restraint on them. His acquaintances in the city are few, and remembering the oft repeated admonitions of his mother against evil company, he is indisposed to increase their number ; but he goes forth to escape the irksomeness of home. And where does he go ? To visit friends in the bosom of a virtuous and intelligent family ? Alas, he is a stranger ! He goes, however, where society in his wisdom and goodness invites him—to the street corner, the hose or engine house, the beer shop or the bar-room—and if he go not speedily thence, to worse places—But I need not follow him. Were he a son of yours, your fears would indicate the thousand dangers that surround him.”

The same point is presented with equal clearness and force in a pamphlet, understood to be from the pen of the Rt. Rev. Bishop Potter, entitled “ An Appeal to Philadelphians.”

“ Idleness is ever an abounding source of evil and misconduct.—What, then, may not be anticipated from the idleness of boys and young men congregated in large numbers in the streets—full of reckless courage and lust of adventure—subject to manifold occasions of excitement—banded together, perhaps, by vows of fellowship and mutual support—unawed by a united and efficient police—often sheltered by darkness—and fired, it may be, by the remembrance of wrongs still unavenged. Yet it is to the street alone that many of these young men and boys can be expected to resort. After the evening meal is finished, and until the hour for sleep arrives, the homes of many of them offer neither attraction nor restraint. If they have money, the cheap theatre, the bowling alley, the gaming house, the well warmed and well lighted tippling shop holds out its lure, and through that lure, multitudes of unsuspecting youths are yearly drawn down to the gates of the Destroyer. Money, however, is that which most of them want. Hence, in many instances, petty thefts to enable them to encompass the means of indulgence—hence, more frequently, street gatherings for the younger, and meetings in the hose house or engine house, for the elder. Hence, the bands that we often pass at the corners of streets, and the throngs that gather round the avenues to each place of vulgar amusement. Hence, fire-arms are raised, and too often fires are even kindled, that hostile companies may be brought into conflict, and the opportunity for tumultuous excitement enjoyed. The aggregate result is seen in a spirit of wide-spread misrule among the young, which, by its outbreaks has often brought disgrace on the community, sacrificed many valuable lives, destroyed a vast amount of property, turned capital and enterprise from the city to locations less exposed to outrages and tumults, subjected multitudes to extreme terror, and often to danger, and which, at this moment, may well fill the heart of every reflecting citizen with anxious foreboding.”

According to the reasonings and suggestions of these admirable

addresses, the method of correcting the alarming social evil under consideration, is to find useful and attractive evening occupation for the persons here described. The method which, thus far, has been found most efficient for this purpose, is the opening of evening schools. It is proposed also, in connection with these schools, to institute reading rooms and libraries in the several suburban districts, where these apprentices chiefly reside. Such schools and reading-rooms with their accompaniments of popular lectures and books, their pleasant accommodations and social aspect, can hardly fail to exert a counteracting influence upon the present downward tendencies of society.

“Experience proves,” says Bishop Potter, in the pamphlet just referred to, “that a comfortable school-room, with instruction and supervision from intelligent, and conscientious persons, will, at once, draw large bodies of these lads and young men within their walls.—Experience demonstrates, too, that when once admitted, they become attached to their teachers, interested in their studies, and respectful to the authority of the school.

“Experience shows yet further, that this amelioration in manner and deportment extends from the school-room to the street, the workshop, and the home. Most gratifying facts have reached the Committee in illustration of this last remark, and they are precisely such facts as might have been anticipated. Awaken in the young feelings of kindness and gratitude—inspire a sense of self-respect and desire for knowledge and improvement—teach, experimentally, the pleasure and advantage of sustaining order and authority in a small community like the school, and we have then, a strong pledge for their good behavior at all times, and in all places.”

Again, he remarks in regard to very many of both sexes, and of different ages, whose improvement cannot be provided for in Evening Public Schools :—

“They are either too much occupied or too much advanced in knowledge. They need however a comfortable and respectable retreat, where they can pass a quiet hour in reading good books, or in listening to instructive and entertaining lectures. Others, who are younger or less advanced in knowledge, would be willing—if opportunity were given—to enter upon studies higher than those pursued in the Public Grammar Schools. For these last, rooms might be provided, in which, under teachers employed by themselves, or by others acting in their behalf, they could prosecute such branches as might best comport with their interests or tastes. During one-half the year, also, Evening Schools are not likely to be kept; and it is much to be desired, that at such times there should be other places of resort, where the tastes and habits developed in the school room, can be cherished rather than discouraged.”

It would be premature, perhaps, from the limited experience as yet recorded, to draw any very general or absolute inference in regard to the final result of this agency. At the same time, the Committee feel authorized to say that, so far as they are apprised, nothing has yet occurred in the history of these efforts that may be considered of an untoward character; on the contrary, very many facts have come to their knowledge, of the most cheering sort. They believe the friends of education, generally, should be encouraged to go on, and give the plan a thorough and effectual trial. In the city of New York, where it has been tried more thoroughly than elsewhere, those conversant with the subject, speak in terms of the highest confidence as to its entire ultimate success.

## APPENDIX No. III.

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### IGNORANCE AND VICE IN CITIES AND TOWNS.

EXTRACT FROM THE 'TWENTY-SEVENTH' ANNUAL REPORT OF THE  
AMERICAN SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.

There never has been a time when the ills of society were more thoroughly searched out, or more glaringly exhibited than now. The institution of what are called the " Ragged Schools " of London, and of the Industrial Schools of Aberdeen, Glasgow, &c., has probably had some share in opening to the light of day the hitherto dark abodes of moral and social degradation in the more populous cities of Europe ; and however false may have been the theories or visionary schemes of some reformers, but for them, much that we now know of the condition of large masses of our suffering fellow-creatures would have remained unknown.

When the Christian philanthropist attempts to analyze these ills, he soon detects the relation which each sustains to the other, and by which all may be traced to a common origin. In the application of his efforts, however, he must oftentimes select a point quite remote from the seat of the disease, at which to commence the remedial process. The ills which press most heavily on the mass of men, are those which affect chiefly their outward condition. The want of the comforts of life provoke many very bad passions ; but the want of the food necessary to sustain life itself, goads the sufferer to desperation. To the privation of wholesome food at proper intervals,—of clothing suitable to the varying seasons,—of comfortable sleep,—of the decencies of domestic life,—of steady and honest employment,—and of all intellectual and moral cultivation, may be ascribed most of the disease, the degradation, the suffering and the depraved habits and courses of those whose social condition excites so much sympathy in our day.



The first wants to be relieved are those which are first and most generally felt. The hungry must be supplied with food, the naked with clothes, and the destitute and forsaken with a home and friends. To do this without encouraging or confirming idle and vicious habits, but, on the contrary, inspiring self-respect and self-exertion, is one of the highest achievements of philanthropy. In the wise providence of God, the relief of these wants involves, to a great extent, the personal efforts of the more favored classes. Alms houses, hospitals and asylums have their place, and a very important one, in the array of means; but they supply none of the sympathy, and but an inconsiderable portion of the relief which suffering humanity demands.—The endless variety of wants and woes, their wide diffusion, and their minute individuality, suggest the idea that the provisions of mercy and sympathy, of which the more favored of our race are made the stewards, were, by this means, to be drawn out in corresponding variety, diffusiveness and individuality:—in other words, that every human being has something to contrive and to do for the good of some other human being.

It is evidently no part of God's providential arrangements on this subject that a common fund should be established, to which the wealthy shall contribute, and from which the poor shall draw their supplies; but each individual is constituted the Lord's almoner, and the nearer he comes to a personal knowledge of his beneficiary, and to a communion of thoughts and sympathies, the more effective is the charity, and the more permanent and happy its results to both parties. Perhaps, in the final vindication of the ways of God to man, it will appear that the darkest shades of human adversity were intended, in part, to set in a more distinct and vivid light the power and grace of human sympathy.

It is a remarkable feature of the ministry of the Founder of our religion, that the dispensation of truth was closely interwoven with the dispensation of mercy,—the promulgation of the gospel with the alleviation of suffering. Not only do "the poor have the gospel preached to them," but "the blind receive their sight, the lame walk and the lepers are cleansed, the deaf hear and the dead are raised up." Beauty is given for ashes, and the garments of praise for the spirit of heaviness. We are told that Jesus went about all the cities and villages of the Jews, not only teaching in their synagogues and

preaching the gospel of the kingdom, but "healing every sickness and every disease among the people." When he gave his immediate disciples authority to preach the gospel, he connected with it a command to "heal the sick;" and when those who had waited on his teaching were exhausted and hungry, he provided for their full supply by an exertion of miraculous power.

That these interpositions of his mercy were made the occasion of the display of his miraculous power, and so evidences of his claim to faith and obedience, does not take at all from the force of the inference,—for he might have revealed the same divine power in a thousand forms unconnected with human suffering. A similar trait appears in the ministry of the apostles; and no one can read the annals of modern missionary labor without noting the increased facilities with which the gospel is introduced where it is preceded or accompanied by the relief of physical suffering. How far this happy union is preserved in modern arrangements for the promulgation of Christianity among ourselves is worthy of thoughtful consideration.

It is very obvious that in order to connect religious inculcation of any kind with ministrations to physical wants or griefs, we must find some avenue that will lead us to the *family group*, however little resemblance such a group may bear to the true idea of that relation. We must make our way to the place, obscure and revolting as it may be, where the instincts, if not the affections, of the parental and filial relation exist, and in which any permanent reform of the social state, as well as any efficient remedies for physical and social suffering, must take their rise. It is no mercy to a youth to limit the hours of labor in the workshop and factory, if the time so rescued from the grasping hand of an avaricious employer is to be spent in the filthy and sickening garret or cellar, or in the haunts of the idle and vicious, or in the resorts of toppers and vagabonds. We must improve his home before we can have much heart to turn the child towards it. And what shall we do first towards this desirable end? A true economy will lead us, (1.) To apply the simplest and most effective remedy. (2.) To do it as early as practicable, and (3.) To apply it to the mischief that lies nearest to us. Without disparaging other agencies that claim confidence in this behalf, we think the *Sunday School* has some peculiar claims to be regarded as the exponent of such an economy.

It will be conceded, we presume, that the attempt to inculcate religious truth upon adult minds that have been hitherto ignorant of it, is, to a great extent, fruitless. The obstacles to its action on those who stand most in need of it are numerous. Among them are, 1.—the absence of habits of reflection and meditation. 2. The customs which govern the places of resort for public worship and religious teaching. 3. The pressure of immediate and conscious wants. 4. False or vague views of the offices and requirements of religion. In confirmation of this opinion, we may cite a passage from a series of papers on the condition of large classes of the population of London, which have excited more than ordinary interest.

“It is estimated that the number of costermongers or street sellers attending the London ‘green’ and fish markets, is about 30,000 men, women, and children. It is supposed that not three in one hundred of them were ever in the interior of a church or any place of worship, or knew what is meant by Christianity. Of all things, they hate tracts. They hate them, because the people leaving them never give them any thing, and, as they can’t read the tract, (not one in forty,) they’re vexed to be bothered with it. And really, what is the use of giving people reading before you’ve taught them to read? ‘They respect the city missionaries, because they read to them, and because they visit the sick, and sometimes give oranges and such like to them and the children. We have known a city missionary buy a shilling’s worth of oranges of a coster, and give them away to the sick and the children, and that made him respected among them. If the costers had to profess themselves of some religion to-morrow, they would all become Roman Catholics, every one of them. ‘The priest, the sisters of charity, &c., always come to the sick, &c. They reckon that religion’s best that gives the most in charity.”

And is it impossible to teach them that the charity is best which brings with it the hopes and consolations of religion, secures to them permanent sources of prosperity, happiness and peace, frees the soul from the shackles of superstition and sensualism, and opens up before it the way of eternal life? Perhaps the experiment may fail with adults, but it will succeed to a great extent with the children; and this presents the array of Infant schools, Sunday schools, and Industrial and Ragged schools in an interesting aspect. They confer the boon of education, and thus supply the means of self-support. The Christian teachers go into a family as helpers, as suppliers of wants, as counsellors, as friends in adversity, as sympathizers with woes which press most severely upon soul and body.

It is among the children that we find the fewest obstacles to the full play of good influences—and surely the motives to exert them are strong enough? If there is an object of real pity in the wide world, it is a little child making its way unguarded and uncounselled up into the busy haunts of men, with skin as fair and delicate as a palace-child, yet all begrimed with dirt—affections susceptible of the gentlest influences, yet all rudely stifled—a temper pliable, yet goaded into obstinacy and violence—a mind capable of exalted attainments assimilating it to its Creator, yet left to rust and perish in brutish ignorance. We have seen such children: they sometimes find place in our Infant and Sunday schools, and when well cared for, they are among the most precious tokens of the redeeming virtue of such institutions.

Dr. Bell thus describes the progress of one such, “But alas,” he says, “it is a history of a frightful class in the population of the towns, and half the inmates of the ragged schools of the old world.”

“The little creature has an expression that does not belong to infancy. It looks sad and careworn. If it survive, it early creeps out into the street, there to begin a life that will probably end where it began. It learns to speak—but what is the language? It sees and hears—but what does it see and hear? The reader knows. Such is its infantine education—an education that is unmixed, untinged even by the words of a good vocabulary. It does not know the meaning of *lie*, because it has never been taught the meaning of *truth*; nay, it has been taught to lie, and truth has been sedulously concealed from its mind. Anon, it is instructed in the art of pilfering, and in the hellish rhetoric of the wynds. When he is four or five years of age, he attracts the attention of the policeman, who ‘marks him as his own;’ and he appears before the magistrate—an experienced thief—at the mature age of six years. How much this urchin knows! He knows all the obscene words, and all the oaths, simple and compound, which are the pith and marrow of the language in the wynds. He knows all the highways and byways—the outs and the ins—the nooks and the crannies of the city. He knows the value of things. He knows the most approved method of appropriating what belongs to another. He is acquainted with the ‘wee pawn’ broker; and he knows the dram-seller, for whose sake he is an outcast. We say that this boy as little deserves to be condemned for traversing the law, as the red-deer deserves to be slain for crossing the march upon the snow-clad hill, descending into the valley, and satisfying his appetite on the turnips of an upland farmer.”

‘Having thus found access to a group of neglected children, our first object is to subject them to the simplest and most effective process to



give a right direction to their hearts and minds. There can be but one opinion as to what this process is. Instruction in the sacred Scriptures must be the predominant element of it. If they do not know how to read, they must be taught; and if they do, they must be persuaded to make a wise use of the attainment. If their secular time is absorbed in necessary labor, the more we must make of Sunday. The whole array of moral means which the church and the friends of public virtue and good order can bring to bear on them must be drawn into service.

It is not an easy matter to persuade the father and mother, (and still less easy to persuade one against the will of the other,) to attend a place of religious instruction; but the children are glad of the opportunity. A thousand motives influence them to which their parents are strangers. The excitement of preparation, the change of scene, the association with numbers, the ceremony of being enrolled and classed, &c., all have their place and weight. No deficiency or inferiority of apparel or personal consideration, no regard to the speech of the world, no taunts or jeers are sufficient to restrain them from embracing the opportunity. And it may be safe to say that in the absence of positive prohibition, or needless embarrassment interposed by parents, ninety-nine in a hundred of all the children in the land, of proper age to attend Sunday school would desire to avail themselves of an offer to do so. So that if we assume that commodious places of assembling Sunday schools were provided in all suitable localities, and properly furnished with teachers and appurtenances, there would be no difficulty in gathering together for Sunday school instruction ninety-nine hundredths of the children and youth now living in the United States between the ages of six and sixteen years.

The alternative presented to us at this stage, is to take them *from home* or to leave them untaught. There is no provision now made, nor does any provision seem practicable by which the proper influence can be exerted upon hundreds of thousands of them at their dwellings. They must, therefore, be withdrawn for a little season, at stated times, in order that their hearts and minds and hands may be supplied, if possible, with something that they can take back with

them for the good of the household.\* A right principle in the heart, a simple hymn in the memory, or a pleasant little book in the hand, may be as a light to shine in a dark place. Thus we gently and effectually introduce the gospel, unmixed with human philosophy and speculation, into the homes of the people; and is not this substantially the true remedy for social evils, introduced at the right time and place, and operating upon the right class of persons?

We submit that it is only by this minute subdivision of Christian energy and self-denial, which brings a single individual of somewhat elevated moral and intellectual character into personal communion with another single individual of an inferior grade, that the general radical renovation of society can be brought about; and when this personal intimate communion can be made to bear on the mass of

\*In a former report, we mentioned an enterprise of much promise, undertaken in New York, and known as the "Boys' Meeting." We make the following extract from the latest account we have seen of its success:

After the lapse of more than two years, the managers (of whom there are four, beside the gentlemen who officiate as speaker and chorister,) feel that it may interest some to know, that the meeting is still continued, and, as they think, with increasing usefulness. While they do not claim for the plan any rare excellence, believing that the Sunday school would be a still better place of instruction for the children and youth now under their care, they cannot but feel that they are engaged in an important work. They are happy therefore, in being able to state, that three similar meetings have been established in other parts of the city,—one of which is under the care of a gentleman who is employed to devote his whole time to that particular field.

In regard to the children who attend this, the original Boys' Meeting, it may be said, that the greater portion of them belong to the very class for whom it was instituted; and, though but a few of them are either ragged or filthy, they have not failed to develop phases of depravity, and exhibit a want of religious instruction, sufficient to sadden the heart, and call for earnest efforts in their behalf. Some of the attendants are Sunday school scholars, who insist on coming, notwithstanding they have been asked to stay away. These aside, it has been clearly demonstrated here, that there is a very large number of children and youth, all over the city, the offspring of respectable parents, whose destitute condition demands the prayers, alms, and labors of the Christian community. It is a mistaken notion that our vicious children are always clothed in rags.

As to results, it may be remarked, that while the managers have not the happiness to record the conversion of any of those under their care, they have been permitted to witness a marked and growing interest on the part of many, while the deportment of all, during the past twenty months, has been such as to secure almost perfect order during the exercises. Some boys have been regular attendants from the very first day the meeting was opened.

It is thought that the labors of the two individuals whose duty it is to visit the neighboring docks and streets for the purpose of collecting hearers at the room, are of essential service. It is their custom to distribute papers, tracts, &c., among young men and others who cannot be induced to attend the meeting, while they are often permitted to say a word in season to some who never enter the sanctuary.

The whole amount of money expended since July, 1848, is a little less than *three hundred dollars*. The principal items of expenditure have been for rent, furnishing the hall with matting, and for children's newspapers, &c. &c.

children and youth, not otherwise similarly influenced, the advantage is inconceivably great.

If it is conceded—as we think it must be by the most superficial observer—that the well-being of a community is greatly dependent on the moral and physical condition of what have been significantly called the “foundation classes,” it cannot be a question of subordinate consequence, what shall make their condition in both respects eligible? For ourselves, we do not entertain a doubt that indifference to the institutions and ordinances of religion—an habitual disregard of and dissatisfaction with the dealings of God’s providence—and (in a multitude of instances) a settled and shameless unbelief in the dispensations of his grace, if not in his existence,—lie at the bottom of the gravest of the social evils which are so rife in the cities of Europe, and are becoming too familiar among ourselves to excite surprise or alarm. In this view, nothing can be more preposterous than to employ any remedy for them of which Christianity, in its purest and simplest principles, is not a predominant element.

In the more elevated and prosperous classes of the community, infidelity may co-exist with an external regard to the proprieties and refinements of life. A thousand motives may be suggested for a concealment of such discreditable views. But it is far otherwise among those who are embarrassed by no such restraints, and who feel the power of no such motives. They speak out, to each other and to all the world, with an emphasis which should by right belong exclusively to truth, and lay themselves open to every influence that will confirm and strengthen them in their false position.

We cannot present this painful view of the social condition of large classes of people in our chief cities in more appropriate language than has been used in describing a like class in the English metropolis; and it should always be remembered that what we lack in our native popular composition of the ingredients of ignorance, selfishness, and an unblushing contempt for authority, human and divine, is likely to be more than made up to us in the influx of foreign stock.

“Very few of the working people of London,” says a late writer, “give attention even to the outward ordinances of religion. There is scarcely a church or chapel in the metropolis that contains more than a mere sprinkling of them at Sabbath worship; and although

the lowest and degraded classes are sunk in a carnal and stupid indifference, yet this cannot be said of the class above them.

“What, then, are the opinions of these people respecting the doctrines of Christianity? Are they opposed to them, or favorable?—Or are they in sentiment as in practice, resting in a cold, vague neutrality? We know that the latter conclusion is a common, but sadly mistaken one. Can it for a moment be reasonably supposed that, in these days of social and intellectual upheavings and universal excitement, the land flooded with literary publications of the most arousing character, and of every form and tendency, with social arrangements so eminently productive of mental activity, inquiry and decision—can it be supposed that, under such a state of things, the immense working population of this country—shrewd, intelligent, and conclusive upon every other question—have no definite opinions whatever upon the subject of religious truth? We may safely answer this question by referring to the nature of the most powerful influences that are at work in forming their opinions. *They are not religious.* For them the influences of the pulpit are powerless, for they scarcely ever reach them; and the Christian church has supplied no substitutionary means at all adequate to the work. She has trained and educated missionaries, and thus *qualified* them for *foreign* labor, but to the missionaries and laborers among our heathen population at home, she gives no such training. She provides no *Home Missionary Colleges* where evangelists may be *specially* trained by men *experimentally* acquainted with their wants and circumstances. And not only so, but there is scarcely any literature provided of a suitable character. The mental appetite is quickened—it must be fed; but the Christian church is not feeding it. We are ashamed to state it, but the rarest publication we can find is a religious tract or periodical suited to the mental characteristics of the irreligious poor! To the truth of this, every intelligent City Missionary or tract distributor will testify. Our monthly magazines would be less welcome, did they contain one long, dry religious essay, partly expressed in a language and style we could scarcely understand.—But such is generally the character of the monthly tracts written for the religious edification of the poor. Can we wonder, therefore, if they are seldom read? or that an instrumentality so feeble and inefficient in all its departments, should prove inoperative on our adult working population?

“We believe, and we speak from experience, that the infidel Sunday newspapers and kindred periodicals, are exerting a more powerful influence upon the adult working population of London, than is being exerted *upon the same class of people* by all denominations of evangelical Christians put together. They find a welcome entrance, from cellar to garret, in every lane and alley in the metropolis.—Their pages form the chief Sabbath reading of the poor, and are greedily perused, while the insipid tract is lying unopened upon the shelf, ready for the polite “call” of the district visitor. Even with the elder children, one of these newspapers is a favorite, and the on-



ly one that some of our ragged emigrants have written to their parents to send them.

“Unlike the majority of modern Christians, each convert to infidelity *becomes a missionary*. In the workshop or manufactory, their opinions are industriously promulgated, and the sacred truths of the gospel derided and denied. The effects of this we have seen even in the Ragged Schools : workshop boys, coming with the determination of converting the whole class to their opinions—putting questions and uttering sophistical statements, which the teacher found some difficulty in refuting.

“Among the conflicts which truth has yet to wage with the kingdom of darkness, and which every convulsive movement is hastening onward, we believe that the contest with infidelity will be neither the slightest nor the shortest.”

## APPENDIX No. IV.

### SCHOOL AND OTHER LIBRARIES.

The following table exhibits the number of volumes in the School Libraries, as nearly as can be ascertained :

				No. Vols.
North Providence,	Allendale,	-	-	-
	Smith's Hill,	-	-	-
	No. 1,	-	-	-
	No. 2,	-	-	-
Smithfield, - -	Lonsdale,	-	-	*900
	Slatersville,	-	-	*750
	Globe,	-	-	*350
	Hamlet,	-	-	*275
	Bernon,	-	-	*200
Cumberland, - -	Manton Library at Cumberland Hill,			375
Burrillville, - -	Manton Library at Pascoag,			808
Glocester, - - -	Chepachet,			*750
Foster, - - -	Manton Library at Hemlock,			1200
Scituate, - - -	Aborn Library at North Scituate,			450
	Smithville Seminary,			500
Cranston, - - -	No. 8,			*400
Johnston, - - -	None.			
East Greenwich,	Old Library	-	-	100
	Methodist Seminary,	-	-	980
	Episcopal Parish Library,			100
West Greenwich,	None.			
Coventry, - - -	Washington Village,			402
	Bowen's Hill,			405
Warwick, - - -	Old Warwick,			475
	Ladies' Library at Old Warwick,			250
	Phenix.			720
South Kingstown,	Kingston.			
	D. Rodman's.			
	Peacedale.			
North Kingstown,	None.			

No. Vols.

Westerly, - - -	Westerly, - - -	2000
Hopkinton, {	Brand's Iron Works. -	*800
Richmond, }		
Richmond, - -	Carolina Mills.	
Exeter, - - -	Fisherville, - -	675
Charlestown, - -	One in three divisions, -	706
Portsmouth, - -	North End, - - -	425
	South End, - - -	650
Middletown, - -	- - - - -	*300
Tiverton, - - -	Globe Factory, - -	160
Little Compton, -	Two Libraries, - -	1108
New Shoreham,	- - - - -	*400
Jamestown, - -	- - - - -	*500
Bristol, - - -	- - - - -	147
Warren - - -	Lyceum, - - -	850
	Female Seminary.	
Barrington, - -	Barrington, - -	550

The following is believed to be the number of volumes in the College and other Libraries.

Providence, - -	College, (bound volumes,) -	25,000
	College Societies, - - -	7000
	Friends' School, - - -	1500
	Atheneum, - - -	16,600
Newport, - - -	Redwood, founded 1747, -	*4000
	Mechanics', founded 1828,	*1100
	Hammond's, founded 1820, -	*8000
	Richardson's.	
Providence, - -	Historical Society, - - -	*2500
	State Library.	
	Mechanics - - - - -	*3300
	Franklin, - - - - -	*800

Those marked thus, \* are estimates.

In addition to the above, there are many parish libraries, of which we can obtain no account. And the number of volumes in the various Sunday School libraries, principally of juvenile books, is very large.

There are still many places in the State, where village or school libraries should be established, as will be seen from an inspection of the foregoing table.

These libraries have generally been formed upon the plan of loaning out the books for a small weekly charge to subscribers and non-subscribers alike. This is believed to be the wisest arrangement.

The friends of education should not be disappointed if the

books should not be as much read a few years hence as now, while newly established. Still they should be maintained.—The youth who are growing up in our public schools, who feel a desire for improvement, should have the opportunities within their reach. And if even but one solitary scholar should have ambition or curiosity enough to lead him to use the library, still it should be preserved.\*

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\*Those who wish to see a full historical account of our large libraries should consult the account by Prof. Jewett in the Fourth Annual Report of the Smithsonian Institution. Also see Journal of R. I. Institute, by Mr. Barnard, vol. 3, page 428.—We have endeavored to correct some inaccuracies in their statements as to numbers.



## APPENDIX No. V.

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### OUTLINE OF THE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION IN RHODE ISLAND.

The following outline is published as an answer to numerous enquiries relating to our system.

POPULATION.—The population of the State is 147,549. Out of this, the city of Providence and the compact towns of Newport, Bristol and Warren, contain 58,795. And when to this is added the population of Woonsocket, East Greenwich, Wickford, Pawcatuck, Pawtucket, Pawtuxet, and the numerous manufacturing and other villages, it will be seen that by far the greater part of the population is in cities and villages.

The State is divided into five counties and thirty-one townships. In Providence, Newport, Bristol and Warren, the schools of the whole town are managed by Committees. The other twenty-seven townships are divided into schools districts, which are corporate bodies for school purposes.

SCHOOL OFFICERS.—Every city and town chooses annually a School Committee of not less than three persons, and they may appoint or authorise the committee to appoint a superintendent. The city of Providence and several of the towns employ superintendents.

In the four towns named, the Committees have the whole management of the schools. In other towns, they have the general su-

pervision, make regulations, define district boundaries, examine teachers, visit the schools, receive and make returns, and pay the bills by orders on the treasury.

In the twenty-seven districted towns, each district chooses annually one or three trustees, a clerk, treasurer, collector, &c. The duty of the trustee is to employ the teacher, have the custody of the district property, to visit the school, &c.

The supervision of the State is exercised by means of a Commissioner of Public Schools, annually appointed by the Governor and Senate, and to whom an appeal may be taken from all doings of committees, trustees, and other school officers. There is a Board of Education. The duties and powers of these school officers may be seen more particularly by referring to the several heads in the Index to the School Law.

County Inspectors may be appointed by the Commissioner, who are authorised to examine teachers and to give certificates, which are valid in all the towns in their county. They have no compensation.

COMPENSATION.—The Committees and Trustees, generally, receive no compensation for services. Superintendents of towns are paid by the towns. The Commissioner's salary is paid from the State treasury.

SCHOOL FUND.—The State has a permanent fund invested in Bank Stock of \$51,300.

When the State received its portion of the U. S. Surplus Revenue, it was also invested, and the annual income appropriated to Schools.

SUPPORT OF SCHOOLS.—From the interest of the School Fund the U. S. Surplus Revenue, and other sources, the State appropriates \$25,000, and from the proceeds of a direct tax \$10,000—making in all \$35,000 annually. This is apportioned among the townships in proportion to the population under 15. But in order to receive its portion, each town must raise at least one-third of its portion of the \$25,000. Most of the towns raise a great deal more than the amount required.

In the twenty-seven districted towns the money is apportioned as follows : The money from the State is divided into two parts—one part is divided equally among the districts, as corporations. The other part is divided according to the average attendance in the districts the previous year. The money raised by the towns is divided by such rules as the towns or committees prescribe, generally equally. There is also a registry tax on voters, and the money received from this source is applied to support schools in the town where it is received.

The school districts can also raise money by direct property tax to support schools, or can make an assessment on scholars who are able to pay. In the greater part of the districts the deficiency of the public money is supplied by assessments.

UNION DISTRICTS.—Ample provision is made by the law for the gradation of schools, and to encourage country districts to unite for the sake of supporting a higher school.

SCHOOL HOUSES.—In the four towns named, and also in one other, school houses are erected by the whole town for all the districts. In the other towns, each district, as a corporate body, manages its own affairs, chooses officers, lays taxes to build and repair houses, support schools, &c. Locations and plans of houses, and the amount of taxes, must be approved by the committees of the towns.

TEACHERS.—Committees can examine and give certificates for their towns, county Inspectors for their counties, and the Commissioner for the State. No teacher can be employed without a certificate.

INSTITUTES.—Institutes are held at such places and times as the Commissioner decides. The expense is paid out of the State treasury.

LENGTH OF SCHOOLS.—In the compact places and villages in which so very large a portion of our population is concentrated, they are continued through the year. Each district is required to keep a school for four months, in order to receive its school money. The

country districts generally keep a school from six to eight months, part in the winter and part in the summer.

**ACADEMIES AND COLLEGES.**—These receive no aid from the State. There are several academies and high schools, some of which are incorporated. Brown University, at Providence, is an institution of long established reputation.

**DEAF AND DUMB, &c.**—The State makes provision for the support and education of the indigent deaf and dumb, blind and idiots. The deaf and dumb have generally been sent to the Hartford Institution, and the blind and idiots to South Boston. Provision is also made by the State and towns for the support of the insane poor at the Butler Hospital for the Insane, at Providence.

**LIBRARIES.**—Towns or districts may raise money by tax for a School Library. And individuals may incorporate themselves by a provision in the School Law for this purpose. Under this provision a large number of associations have been formed. See the appendix No. 4 to this report.



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. 1.

PROVIDENCE, APRIL, 1852.

NO. 4.

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## ELECTION OF SCHOOL COMMITTEE.

THE time for the election of School Committees is drawing near. Those who are anxious to have good schools, should exert themselves to have a good committee elected. Keep the subject out of politics; and if you have a large committee, try at any rate, to have four of them, (a quorum,) so near to each other that they can meet often for the transaction of business.

The law requires every committee to make a report to the town. Do not let this be forgotten. Have it printed, and a copy of it sent to every family in the town. If it is a good report, no expenditure of the same amount of money, will be more profitable.

The time for the election of trustees and district officers by the districts, is also near. Many districts still continue to elect annually one trustee to serve three years, according to the old law. According to the present law, a district may elect either one or three trustees, but for one year only. This provision of the law should be complied with; otherwise the district or its officers may be subjected to trouble and expense, by having the validity of their proceedings contested at law.

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## CONSTRUCTION OF THE SCHOOL LAWS.

A large number of the cases arising under the school laws are settled by advice, and without any formal decision; and in others the decision depends upon the equity of the case. But as the construction of the law, in several important particulars, was involved in the following appeal, it is published for general information:

## CASE OF SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. THREE, NORTH PROVIDENCE.

In the case of the appeal of the Trustees of School District, No. 3, in North Providence, from a vote of the School Committee of said town, passed January 24, 1852, refusing to allow certain bills presented by said trustees, viz. : Anson H. Cole, for \$48 12, for teaching school to January 8th, and Hannah T. Smith's, for \$18 00, for teaching school to January 23, 1852.

The parties were heard before the Commissioner of Public Schools on Saturday, March 13, 1852; the trustees, Randall and Shepard, and Messrs. Sisson and Willard, chairman and clerk of the School Committee, being present.

It appears, that by vote March 9th, 1850, the School Committee recommended the district to build or lease a room for a *primary* school, in the south part of the district—that at a meeting of the district, August 6, 1851, the following resolution was offered :

*“Resolved, that in the opinion of this meeting, the wants of the district imperatively demand the establishing of a primary school in the southerly part thereof; I move that a school house for the use of the public schools of this town be built agreeably to the recommendation of the School Committee of the town, the building of which school house not to exceed \$1000.”*

And it was passed. A school house was built.

Of the teachers employed, Mr. Cole had a general certificate, and Miss Smith a certificate for the primary school, near Corlis & Nightingale's, the new house being intended.

The trustees changed the teachers, and directed Mr. Cole to keep the school in the new house, and Miss Smith the school in the old school house.

The chairman, and clerk of the committee, by letter Jan. 2, 1852, notified the trustees that the teachers should be restored to their former schools, and that unless the change was made on the following Monday, their bills would not be allowed. The change was not made, and when the bills were presented, the committee voted to allow only so much of them, viz. ; (\$43 75 to one teacher, and \$3 60 to the other,) as was incurred before Monday, January 5th, “at which time the certificates of the said teachers were formally annulled.”

It further appears, that the committee, by vote, October 18, 1851, authorized their chairman and clerk, severally, in the absence of the board, “to order bills, approve taxes, school regulations, &c. for the

several school districts, and transact all other business legally transferable into their hands."

The appellants contend that the district schools had never been graded, that the committee had no power to grant conditional certificates, and that the committee had never legally annulled the certificates, (sec. 14,) or dismissed the teachers. (Sec. 56.)

On full consideration of the points presented, and which were ably argued by Col. Rivers and Mr. Sherrod, for the trustees, and by Mr. Willard, for the committee, I am of opinion,

First. That the School Committee may promote by advice and recommendation, but have no power to compel a gradation of schools by a district.

Second. That the vote of the district (as explained by the vote of the committee, which is referred to in it, and thus made a part of it,) does appropriate the new house for a primary school.

Third. That the committee have the power to limit and explain their certificates. To construe the law to require perfection in the branches named in Sec. 54, would be unreasonable, and, indeed, it is impossible to make a perfectly definite standard. If so, there is no reason why the certificate should not express the degree of qualification.

Fourth. That the committee cannot delegate their general powers. The powers of visiting schools and examining teachers they are specially authorized to delegate.\* There can be no objection, also, to a committee authorizing its officers to draw orders for payment of bills, upon the performance of certain conditions, as on making a return, &c. But to delegate a power, which is supposed to imply the exercise of a discretion in the committee, seems contrary to the intention of the law in giving such power to the committee.

The committee have the undoubted right to annul a certificate, or dismiss a teacher, for good cause. No particular form is necessary for doing this. But the trustees should be plainly informed that the certificate is annulled, or the teacher dismissed. And the teacher should be notified, that he may have a chance to defend himself.

I see no reason, therefore, why Mr. Cole's bill should not be paid, he having a general certificate; and from considerations of equity,

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\*By the School Law of 1839, the committee were expressly authorized to delegate all their powers, and the practice was productive of great evil.

and believing that the trustees did not consider that they were violating the law, or the lawful regulations of the committee, I think that Miss Smith's bill also, should be paid.

The town treasurer of the town of North Providence, is hereby authorized and required to pay out of any money in his office standing to the credit of said district No. 3, (or if not apportioned, then out of any school money in his office,) the sum of forty-eight dollars and twelve cents, to Anson H. Cole, and the sum of eighteen dollars to Miss Hannah T. Smith; and in case the trustees have paid the same, or either of them, then to pay it to said trustees, and for so doing this shall be his sufficient warrant.

E. R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools.

Providence, March 23, 1852.

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### MAP OF THE STATE.

Our readers will be glad to learn that the Legislature, at its last session, made provision for furnishing every school house in the State with a new and complete map of this State, to be executed by H. F. Walling. Mr. Walling has already published maps of the counties of Providence, Newport, Bristol, and part of Kent. These are on a large scale, and very handsomely finished. A portion of the south part of the State is yet to be surveyed.

While on the subject of maps, we recommend to our school officers to examine the new and beautiful map of the world, recently published by J. H. Colton, of New York. Mr. Colton's large map of the world is a most excellent one. But the one we now refer to, is of smaller size. America is in the centre, Europe and Africa on the right hand, (as you stand facing the map,) and Asia on the left, thus exhibiting the commercial relations between our western coasts and Asia, which have lately become so important, and which cannot be well understood from common maps. The price is very low.

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### REPORTS OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES.

Any of the School Committees who will send us their manuscript reports, by paying the same amount which they would pay elsewhere for printing them, may have them inserted in the Magazine. We wish to make the Magazine a repository of all the educational documents of the State.



# ERROR IN DISTRICT RETURNS.

In printing the last blanks for returns from Trustees to School Committees, at the close of the third division, the following line was accidentally omitted.

No. of children over 4 and under 16 years of age, who attended no school, public or private, during the term.

Committees, therefore, who are anxious to obtain this information, must take care to insert it in the blanks which they furnish to the trustees.

## ERRORS IN PRONUNCIATION.

MANY years ago, John Neal published an article under the title of "Yankee mispronunciation," containing a list of the words which he had observed to be incorrectly pronounced in common usage. Many of the errors and yankeeisms of Maine, however, are not found among us. We selected from his list such words as we thought deserved most attention, and we have for several years added to it from the results of our own observation. We give our list below :

Afraid, afeard,	above,	balcóny,
afternoon,	adopt,	bombard,
already,	ate, et,	banisters, balusters,
are not,	abdomen,	
audacious,		Charade,
asylum,	Bachelor, bachelдор,	chest,
ask, ax,	been,	card, keerd,
across, acrost,	bellows,	chair, cheer,
almost, most,	beyond,	care, keer,
after, arter,	boil, broil, &c.	camphor, camphire,
again,	bonnet,	captain, captin,
awkward,	bran, brand,	catch, ketch,
amenable,	bristle, brussle,	cellar, suller,
aye,	burst, bust,	chaise, sha,
are,	buffet, bofat,	chambrel, { gambul,
arithmetic,	buoy,	gambrel, {
awry,	beneficence,	chew, chaw,
artificer,	behove,	chimney, chimbly,
to alternate,	behemoth,	clothes, close,
appoint,	bade,	coil, quirl,
anointed,	before,	chaldron,
any, ary,	bonfire, burnfire,	chamberlain,
apparent,	bye and bye, bimeby,	coral,

cupola, cupalo,	demonstrate,	fearful,
cucumber,	demonstrator,	fought, fout,
concern, consarn,	debut,	falcon,
contrary, contrerrary,	depot,	falchion,
cover, kiver,	discrepancy,	fulsome,
covetous, covechus,	dynasty,	fanatic,
chivalry,	deficit,	fortune,
cochineal,	design,	future,
crupper, crooper,	drop, drap,	faucet,
corps,	difficulty,	frustrate, flustrate,
cement, n.	drama,	felloe,
causeway,	detail,	
couch grass,		Galled, gallded,
character, kericter,	Earth, airth,	gather, gether,
certain, sartin,	endwise, endways,	general, jincral,
cow, kyow,	elixir pro.	genuine,
conceit, consate,	early, airly,	gimlet, gimblet,
command,	education, edecation	girl, gal,
creature,	eleven, leven,	gnarled, nurly,
considerable,	end, eend,	gold, goold,
could, coold,	engine, injine,	government,
careen, kreen,	errand, arrant,	gown, gownd,
country, countery,	ewe, yo,	grievous, grievyous,
crutch, crotch,	ensue,	gripe, grip,
clench, clinch,	edict,	grudge, begruch,
cognizance,	essayist,	guardian,
cynosure,	especial,	grimace,
cuirass,	eer,	gross,
contemplate,	ere,	get rid,
cheerful,	exaggerate,	gist,
chyle,	exercise,	guard,
chyme,	extraordinary,	guide,
combat,	extol,	gave, gin,
comrade,	enervate,	grasshopper,
clerk,		going, gwine,
	Forward, forard,	grindstone,
Daughter,	fetch,	gallant,
dandruff,	fellow, feller,	gherkin,
decrepit, decripid,	meadow,	God, Gawd,
depth, debth,	follow, &c.	goal, goold, boys' use
dessert,	far, fur,	
drain, dreem,	february, febuwary,	Humblebee,
drought, drouth,	fell (to cut,) fall,	home,
drown, drowned,	first,	heard, hearn, heerd,
drowned, drownded,	flail, frail,	helm, helem,
durst, darst,	forget, forgit,	heated, het, heat for
durst not, darsent,	further, funder,	heated,

his, hisn,	jaundice, jaunders,	molasses, lasses,
her, hern,	just, jest, jeest,	matron,
however, howsom-	join,	merchant,
ever,	joist,	
handkerchief, hand-	jonquil,	Necessitated, neces-
kercher.		siated,
harsh, hash,	Kept, kep,	notable,
Henry, Henery,	kettle,	natural, nateral,
height, heth, hate—	knob, nub,	nape, nap,
(Milton used hight,)	keg, cag,	nigh,
hermaphrodite, her-		nurse, nus,
mophrodite,	Leather,	none, nary,
hinder, hender,	lest, leest,	nothing,
hogshead, hoxit,	lieve, livs,	neer,
hoist,	lie, lay,	nought, ought,
hold, holt,	let me go, lemmego,	northwest, norwest,
hoof, huf,	liquorice,	negro,
hearth,	lever,	nest, neest,
heroine,	leisure,	national,
heroism,	lunatic,	
Hannah, Harner,	loath,	Oil, ile,
humor,	learn, larn,	origin,
heft, for weight, al-	lower,	ours, ourn,
so verb,	little, leetle,	ostler,
heinous,	ley, a field,	orchestra,
housewife,	lilac,	obscenity,
humble,		onto,
horizon,	Mischievous,	obdurate,
hurra,	maintenance,	only,
huzza,	mamma, mammy,	oblige,
hussars,	marsh, mash,	oblique,
halfpenny,	massacre, massacre	obstreperous, obstrop-
	mile, mild,	ulous,
	mountainous, moun-	ostrich, ostridge,
Idea,	taineous,	other, tother,
instead, instid,	muskmelon, mush-	ourang outang,
imagery,	million,	
infirmary,	millennium,	Papa, pappy,
impugn,	machinist,	particular,
interstice,	marauder,	perch, peerch,
isolate,	months,	pert, peert,
infantile,	marchioness,	pennyroyal,
ichneumon,	melancholy,	purse,
	mosketo,	plait, pleet,
Joint,	miracle, meracle,	point,
jalap, jolap,	may I not, mayn't I,	poison,
January, Jinuary,	might, mout,	poplar,

pretty well, pooty	risk, resk,	soot, sut
well,	rivet, revet, ribbit,	spirit, sperit
pumpkin,	roof, ruf,	steady, steddy
parent,	rosin, rozzum,	stint, stent
presage, n.	raillery,	strick, streak
protest,	route,	stun, stund
possess,	rhythm, rythum,	such, sich
possession,	rode,	supple, soople
paunch,	rise,	suggest
pleiades,	Rome,	stamp
prologue,	revolt,	salute, n.
put,	rimple, rumple,	scallop
potatoes,	rodomontade,	sloth
pincers, pinchers,	recognizance,	sirrah
precedence,	resources,	schedule
pudding,	recess,	schism
pomegranate,	Raphael,	satyre
pasha,		satyr
patriot, &c.	Scribble, scrabble,	saturn
patron,	saucer, sarcer,	saliva
peremptory,	southwest, souwest,	slept, slep
pour,	sassafras, sassafrax,	suite
platina,	sauce, sars,	shriek
prelude,	scare, skeer,	shrewd
prebend,	scared, skeert,	shrink
prelate,	seldom, sildom,	spoil
	share, sheer,	sky
Quench, squinch,	shut, shet,	shrine
quid, cud,	stupendous,	shroud
quoit, quate,	subtract, substract,	shrill
quaff,	saw, seed,	shrivel
quay,	spatterdashers, spat-	shrew
qualm,	terlashes,	shone
	should, shoold,	swath
	sphere, spere	shew
Rather, ruther,	spire, speer	strew
raspberry, rawsber-	strenuous, strainous	sovereign
ry,	surtout, stute	specious
real, raal,	somewhere, som-	sergeant,
really, raly,	mers	sieve,
rear up, rare up,	saunter,	Saladin,
refuse,	seine, sane	Sultan,
regiment, rigiment,	sewer,	
rheumatism, rhu-	since, sense	Their, theirn
matiz,	sit sat, set sot	timerous, timersome
rid, red,	sleek, slick	tassel, tossel
rinse, rense,	smutch, smooch	teat, tet
rind, rine,		



treenail	undo, ondo	wrench, rinch
this, this ere	untie, ontie	wrestle, rassel
that, that are	unknown, unbe-	wan
those, them are	known	wand
touch, tech	utensils	wary
treble, thribble	unawares	wound
thirst	unwary	wind
talisman		warrior
told, telled	Value, vally	wrapt, ropt
transition	volume, volyum	well, wal
turnpike	voyage, vige	wander, wonder
taunt	vaunt	walnut, wonnot
tremendous	very, wery	was not, wan't
tribute	vases	we, we'm
toil		westward, westard
torn, tored	Windpipe, winepipe	worship
it totters, tottles	watermelon, water-	worsted
truckle bed, trundle	million	wonted,
bed	weapon, wepn	
two, tew	wick, week	Yet, yit
trough	widow, widder	yes
tremor,	width, wedth	yonder
tenure	withers, wethers	yours, yourn
tomato	worse, wus	years, year
	worth, wuth	yea
Umbrella, rumberil	wreck, rack	you are, you'm

There is a pronunciation of the diphthongs *ou* and *ow*, in such words as *cow*, *about*, &c., common in the southeast part of Connecticut, and in some parts of this State, which it is almost impossible to represent with letters, but which should be avoided.

The word *parent*, and similar words, are often mispronounced, giving the *a* the sound of *a* in fate. This is contrary to Webster, Worcester, Russell, and the practice of the most correct speakers. It has been caused by a misunderstanding of Walker's notation.

We shall probably resume this subject hereafter.

### A GOOD SCHOOLMASTER.

The following excellent story is told of a New York schoolmaster :

I heard one of your committees interfering with a vengeance, and turning out a school master for committing enormities in the way of illustrating lessons. It appears that he had enlisted the feelings of his pupils in Natural Philosophy, but was told to do the teaching and leave the nonsense. But nothing daunted, he got some apparatus himself, and told the boys if they would bring him a mouse or two the next day, he would

show the effects of nitrogen gas upon them. The next day came the committee to reprove him, because, forsooth, the boys in the eagerness to learn, had been up all night trying to catch mice for their master, and disturbed the house ! He promised to do better, but when he came to Astronomy, he committed a more atrocious crime, for, being deficient of an orrery, he took a boy in the school and placing him as the sun, told him how to turn slowly upon his axis as the sun did ; then he placed a little fellow for Mercury ; next to him, a girl, for Venus ; then a representation of the Earth, then a fiery little fellow for Mars, and so on, till he got all the planetary system arranged, and explained to each one how fast he was to turn on his heel as it went round the orbit.

Then giving the signal, the Sun commenced revolving, and away went the whole team of planets round him, each boy keeping in his proper distance from the centre, trotting with proper velocity in his orbit, and whirling round in due proportion as he performed his revolutions. It must have been a rare sight, and a lesson which the boys retained ; for do you think, my dear sir, that John, who represented Mercury, would ever forget that he had an easy time walking round the lubber in the centre, while Will, who personated Herschel, must have have been out of breath in scampering round his orbit.

But if the boys did not forget the lesson, neither did the master ; they danced, but he paid the piper ; for horrified, the committee then dismissed him at once—he had been teaching, for ought they knew, the dance of the Turkish dervishes.

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#### ABOU BEN ADHEM AND THE ANGEL.—LEIGH HUNT.

Abou Ben Adhem (may his tribe increase !)  
Awoke one night from a deep dream of peace,  
And saw, within the moonlight in his room  
Making it rich and like a lily in bloom,  
An angel, writing in a book of gold ;  
Exceeding peace had made Ben Adhem bold ;  
And to the presence in the room he said,  
“ What writest thou ? ” The vision raised his head,  
And with a look made all of sweet accord,  
Answered, “ The names of those who love the Lord.”  
“ And is mine one ? ” said Abou. “ Nay, not so,”  
Replied the angel. Abou spoke more low,  
But cheerly still ; and said, “ I pray thee, then,  
Write me as one that loves his fellow men.”  
The angel wrote and vanished. The next night  
It came again, with great awakening light,  
And showed the names whom love of God had blessed,  
And lo ! Ben Adhem’s name led all the rest.

## HINTS TO TEACHERS.

We commence in this number the republication from Mr. Barnard's Report of the outline of the exercises of the Institute held at Wolcotville, Ct. Sept. 30, 1850. It was prepared at the request of the Institute, by Rev. Thomas K. Beecher, and contains many valuable suggestions. We shall continue it in the next number.

## OUTLINE OF SUBJECTS AND EXERCISES.

The spirit of the request, made by the members of the Institute, that an outline of the proceedings be printed, for future reference, demands that the matters be arranged topically, rather than according to the accidental order in which they were discussed.

It should be borne in mind, that the following pages are not offered as a treatise upon teaching. They are prepared for the use of those teachers who were present as members of the Institute, and are designed to preserve in a condensed form, principles and trains of thought, which were there presented and fully illustrated.

Among the most important of these principles, the following were stated as fundamental and properly introductory.

Knowledge being of two kinds; *arbitrary*, as names, use of words, notation, dates, &c., and *inferential*, as the successive unfoldings of any pure science, it follows:

I. Absolute or arbitrary facts should be freely and frequently *told* to the scholar, as arbitrary, and therefore to be learned without question or attempt to reason.

II. Inferred facts and principles deducible from previous knowledge, should be taught with and by their connections and in their various relations. They should spring up in the mind of the learner, and not be merely transplanted thither from a book or a teacher's mind.

Again: the mind of childhood is living and active, possessing its likes and dislikes, its hungerings and loathings. Teaching is truly a feeling of the mind. Hence:

III. The attempt to teach without first exciting, or at least seeking for an appetite on the part of the learner, is unwise, and in most cases ensures its own defeat.

Again: Since we recognize in every child a triple organization, embracing the physical, the intellectual and the moral natures; and since *true* education covers all three departments, Hence:

IV. To cultivate any one part or power of childhood, at the expense of, or the neglect of other parts of his nature,

causes oftentimes entire failure, and always more or less distortion and want of symmetry.

Again. Studies are oftentimes of value to the learner in more than one particular. Always there may be gained (1.) a discipline of the mind, and (2.) an increase of knowledge. Besides these two, there are points of morals, of religion, &c., which are more or less incident to every properly taught school study. Hence :

V. Studies should be selected and instruction imparted with reference to securing the greatest comprehensiveness of result and consequent improvement from the pursuit.

The school is designed to qualify youth for active and useful lives in a republican state and under free institutions, free almost to license. Hence :

VI. The school should be made to exemplify the excellence of the social and political organization, under which the scholars are soon to find themselves.

Again : Since parents are primarily entrusted with the whole care and responsibility incident to the education of childhood, and cannot without great wrong lay it wholly aside. It follows that :

VII. Teachers should hold themselves auxiliary to parents, and not as an independent power or authority.

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These fundamental principles when applied in detail, work very remarkable changes in the methods to be used by a teacher. Are these principles true ?

For the sake of clearness, the following illustrations are arranged, not in the order in which they came up for discussion in the Institute, but by subjects, viz. :

1st. Language. (1. Talking and alphabet ; 2. Spelling and reading ; 3. Grammar ; 4. Analysis and Composition.)

2d. Arithmetic and Mathematical Instruction.

3d. Geography and History.

4th. Penmanship and Drawing.

5th. Articulation, Vocal Exercises and Singing.

6th. Discipline ; (order of exercises and school government.)

7th. Mutual Relations of Parties in a School, viz. : parents, teachers, scholars, school officers, and the public in general.

8th. Selection of Studies, Books, etc.

9th. Summary and Conclusion.

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1st. LANGUAGE. “ *Talking and the Alphabet.*”

Very much is implied under this brief heading. Language is, strictly speaking, but the instrument with which all other knowledge makes itself active, useful and impartible. Yet in school, it must be pursued as an *end*, a special object of pur-



suit; and while this is true, it is equally true, that in school, language should be taught as it is to be used hereafter; i. e. as the medium for all thought. Hence:

1. *Every study and every recitation should have the language-training element fully developed and recognized.*

"I know, but can't think," "I know, but can't tell," are frequent answers in all schools. They both imply, whenever heard, that the language element is wanting in that particular study. It is not enough to have a child learn Arithmetic or Geography; he needs also to *talk* Arithmetic and *talk* Geography. It is always easier to teach a child "to cipher," than 'tis to teach him to explain *fluently* and *gracefully*. There is an arithmetic of the head, one of the fingers, and one of the tongue. Usually we find but one of these taught, viz.: ciphering, or "of the fingers."

Again: Language begins with mere imitation and submissive adoption of arbitrary sounds, heard by the child and remembered. Hence:

2. At the very outset of school instruction, we should draw our method of teaching these purely arbitrary things, names, &c., from the practice which prevails in every home, where a child learns to talk, nominally without teaching, really with the only *true* teaching—pleasant talk.

We cannot excite an appetite directly, in very young children, for the alphabet and print. We have all of us violated, time and again, our third principle. The idle, vacant faces, the restless mischief, or the happy sleep of nine-tenths of the A B C scholars in our schools, should teach us that we are often premature in our alphabetic lessons. True, children are sent to school too early in life. But when we find them with us, we should aim to make them a home at school, since we cannot get them home from school.

There are many lessons to be learned by little children, before they learn the alphabet. A little class sent out to *see* and called in to recite what they have seen, are in a fair way to learn to *talk*, and talking should be taught before reading. Children do not know how to use intelligently any one of their five senses. We can create an appetite to use the eye and ear and hand, we can teach to observe, we can teach the names of things and scenes observed, long before we can properly teach the convenient art of reading and writing.

When a class has observed and recited a week or a month, it will soon be found by them, that memory is treacherous and lets slip much they have seen, and which they wish to recite. An older scholar accompanies them and makes a memorandum, and reads fluently item after item, which they, alas, forgot. The use of writing and of print thus become obvious to

the little class ; an appetite begins to awaken within, and by a judicious intermingling of eye and hand lessons with the dry tasks of letters and of words, this appetite may be increased, so that the A B C class may become as busy and as happy at school, as such children always are at home.

It should be observed here, that the motive for every study should be drawn, not from queer devices and toys, which always overlie the thing learned, so heavily to conceal it, but from an intelligent exhibition of the actual value of the thing to be learned. Sauces may tempt an invalid to eat—but he eats not the bread, but the sauce. Hunger makes an oat cake sweet.

“But the sounds of letters and the spelling of words are so abominably irregular, that after all, there must be a long term of years spent in learning their arbitrary use, and after all, there’s no royal road to reading !” True : therefore,

3. Whatever of regularity and law there is, should be carefully selected and taught. The alphabet is a jungle, dense and dark ; but it has great landmarks, nevertheless : and in learning to read there is much room for inference and constructive skill.

Children may be found reciting, “A’s a harrow,” “B’s an ox yoke,” “C’s a pail handle,” &c., who know not any of these valuable articles by sight, and have learned the “harrow” and the “ox yoke” just as blindly as they learned the “A” and the “B.” To learn the alphabet thus, is no gain whatsoever. True, the names are learned, but we never use the names of consonants—we use only their powers. Hence :

1. Consonants should be learned by their powers and not by their names.

But having taught one *long* sound to each vowel, viz. : a, e, i, o and u, and having learned the powers of the consonants, it is time to give the little laborers a taste of their harvest.—Words on a blackboard, using these *known* sounds, should be read, copied and written by the scholar. G O T, (goat,) B A T, (bait,) &c., always a familiar word, spelt phonetically, that is, by its sound. For,

2. Spelling words, English words, is one thing, and spelling sounds is quite another. And,

3. Learning to read and write is quite a distinct labor from learning to read and write English ; as is fully evinced by the boy who wrote “&ru Jaxn.”

Having thus taught one power, and only one, for each letter, and exercised the class for a week or more on phonetic spelling with these slender materials, the class themselves will find many familiar words, which they can speak, but cannot write.

4. Reading and writing advance side by side ; they are, both of them, *language*, the former using the eye and the tongue, the latter the eye and the hand.

Selecting from these familiar words, a set that contain the short sound of each vowel—as *kat, set, bit, log, bug, &c.* ; a word of instruction tells the class, that these letters stand for two sounds, and we have to guess by the sense what is meant. “Does *k a t* spell cat, or Cate?” Ans. “It spells both.” “Well, ‘The cat or Cate catches mice ;’ in that sense which does *k u t* spell?” Ans. “Cat.” “How do you know?” Ans. “By the sense,” &c.

And so progressively the class advances, until it has learned for A four sounds ; for E, two ; for I, two ; for O, three ; for U, three ; and for the very few ambiguous consonants, which have no other letter to express their anomalous use, their double or triple power.

The class are now phonetic writers and spellers ; and the record of phonetic triumphs in England, shows how brief a time is needed to teach thus far ; while the bright intelligence and cheerfulness of a class under such training, would make the longest road seem “the shortest way home.”

Let it be observed here, that the class have learned to *talk* well what they know, have learned to use their senses for observation, and can now write or print whatever they can speak.

5. Phonetic spellers and readers are shrewd guessers, at the meaning of a word when disguised by English spelling.—They are far abler to read, than any ordinary A B C conqueror is, to make out of “be a ka e ar,” the simple word baker.

Now, and not until now, begins the necessity of giving the learner a book—a Reader.

The necessary limits within which this outline must be confined, will not allow so full illustration of the remaining principles discussed under the head “Language.” Enough has been given to show the application of several of our introductory principles to this exceedingly elementary department of a teacher’s duty.

Thus far we have taught the child to talk, and faithfully to draw, as it were, the pictures of the sounds it utters. Now comes the labor of teaching the child to recognize, in the caricatures which we call words, the same sounds which it has learned to pronounce, and write. In other words, we have treated of “talking” and the “alphabet,” and now have come to “spelling” and “reading.”

1st (contin.) LANGUAGE. “*Spelling and Reading.*”

We have said already, that “to spell words is one thing, and to spell sounds quite another.” In teaching, the two should be kept separate. Hence :



1. We need orthoepic classes as well as orthographic ones. The former train the organs of speech, the latter, train the eye and the hand.

In business, we never detect a man's faulty spelling until he is called upon to write. In actual life we are never called upon to spell a word orally. The most accurate proof readers will often fail in oral spelling. The most thoroughly drilled spelling classes invariably fail in written accuracy. Hence:

2. Spelling is an art learned by the eye for the guidance of the hand in writing. The tongue is idle when we write, and it is folly to train *in school* the tongue to do what it never needs do again. Spelling should be taught by writing. Again,

If a man spells faulty, thus, "beleif," "recieve," "comon," "pursuade," "persue," &c., it does him but little good to be able to spell "phthisic," and "chevaux-de-frise," and "rendezvous," correctly. Hence:

3. We should teach ordinary spelling thoroughly ere we look up "puzzlers." Again:

In the various languages used by men, there are many valuable words, whose orthography we ought to know; but it is folly in the extreme to commit to memory a Latin Lexicon, without once looking at the significancy of the words we spell. Equal folly is it for us to teach "perplexity," "reciprocity," "fatuity," "onerous," &c.; for, to childhood, these words are mere Greek. Hence:


4. Definition and the use of words should go hand in hand with their correct spelling. Again:

In actual life, we never spell words for the sake of the spelling merely. We spell only when we wish to write; and then we use all sorts of words. Hence:

5. We need no spelling classes distinctively; but all our studies and all our classes ought to be "*talking, reading, writing and spelling*" classes." Arithmetic ought, Geography ought, every recitation ought to exercise the class in these four arts, which in life's labor are never practised alone, but always in connection with some business or labor other than the mere reading, writing, &c. &c.

[To be continued.]

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# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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## HINTS TO TEACHERS.

[From Mr. Barnard's Report of the Exercises of the Institute held at Wolcottville, Ct., Sept. 30, 1850.]

[Continued from page 234.]

In support of this last and most important injunction, the following are alleged as facts, and every teacher is competent to decide whether they are facts or mere fancy, viz. :—Large classes often spell well with the tongue, but miserably with the pen. Scholars often write beautifully in their copy-books, but abominably when called upon to write a letter, &c. Scholars can often spell a spelling-book straight through, who cannot use one in ten of the words they spell. Classes will often recite well, who yet cannot write out the very words they repeated a moment before. Boys frequently read a lesson fluently, and yet cannot tell a single idea that is conveyed by their lesson. A teacher may, very often, by reading from a scholar's book, adding never a word, explain a dark puzzle, which the learner never dreamed was elucidated in the book, &c.

Are any or all of the above assertions facts? If they are, they assuredly point clearly the road to improved teaching.

By "reading" is generally meant, the mere learning to articulate, inflect, &c. Of these exercises mention will be made under the head devoted to their consideration.

Let it be borne in mind that we are not aiming to set forth labor-saving methods; so far as teacher's labor is in question, we are fourfolding it in intensity, even while we shorten it in duration. Young children have a shamefully *dull time* of it, learning to read; and our hope and aim is to suggest alleviations of this stupid *slavery* to the alphabet and spelling-book, which renders our *little* boys and girls such living testimony against our professional skill. But to return to "Reading."

In actual life we read for our own information ; we read for the sake of catching the sentiment we read. Hence,

1. It is far more important (and far more difficult) to teach classes to read understandingly, than it is to render them skillful pronouncers of words. "I had rather speak five words with my understanding \* \* \* than ten thousand words in an unknown tongue," says the teacher Paul. Yet nine-tenths of the children in this state, merely to gratify a longing after *big leather covered reading books*, do stammeringly read "ten thousand words in an unknown tongue," and too many teachers never dream of asking "understandest thou what thou readest?"

2. Every word of every reading lesson should be thoroughly understood, ere the lesson is connectedly read.

3. For young classes, the teacher ought carefully to explain and familiarly paraphrase every reading lesson, and (as an exercise in writing and spelling,) require an accurate transcription of, at least, a paragraph or two, as the regular preparation for the recitation.

4. More advanced classes should make this paraphrase for themselves, and write it out fairly, learning to use their dictionary as the companion of *all* their studies.

5. The mechanical training of the vocal organs should not be based upon the reading lesson, but should stand by itself as a mechanical exercise.

6. All the lessons of school should be treated as reading lessons, and be carefully read aloud by the class ere they be given up for recitation.

It must be borne in mind that we define reading, as a branch of school training, thus : Reading is the art of understanding the thoughts of others when they address the eye, either in script or print. Vocal excellence is quite a different attainment.

Our schools too often teach the voice to read, and let the understanding go uncultivated, in this exercise.

#### 1st (contin.) LANGUAGE. "*English Grammar.*"

There is usually a prejudice existing in the minds of parents and children against the thorough pursuit of this department of language. The prejudice is well founded if the study be pursued by the book, and accomplished in the same way that tables of weight and measure are mastered. Equal folly is it to attempt to teach a child the "art of speaking and reading and writing" his vernacular language, by the use of a grammar one hour a day, if he listens to and uses faulty forms of speech all the rest of his time.

1. Having learned *by use* one language fluently, and then

studied the laws of its formation and construction, we are then able, in learning a second language, to derive aid from its grammar. In our schools, where as yet, the English language is imperfectly used, it is of but little value to the learner to know, that "a verb must agree with its subject in number and person," or that "I, my or mine, me," are three persons of the first personal pronoun; of little value, that is, in the matter of learning to speak and write correctly the language. We *use* language in unconsciousness of its laws. We use it just as we breathe, without pausing to ask what muscles shall act and what rest inactive. Hence :

2. The study of English Grammar should never be allowed to outstrip the child's ability *to use* the language correctly, but should be pursued, as an exercise teaching the child to classify familiar words, pointing out their syntax, and ascertaining their precise power and office in a sentence. For,

3. English grammar affords the simplest and most truly progressive exercises in generalization and abstract thought, that can be devised for childhood. This is the true value of the study. As ordinarily pursued, it is valueless.\*

A *book* usually makes a scholar deem the lesson one to be merely memorized; a memorized lesson from a grammar is invariably useless, nay, injurious. Hence :

4. A teacher should have half a dozen grammars for his own use, but should teach his classes, particularly his younger classes, orally, or by black-board; and the class should study grammar from the reading book, and from original sentences, using slate and pencil for every lesson.

Parsing, when confined to an oral exercise, is rarely studied by a class before the recitation hour. It usually degenerates into a mere repetition of certain gibberish, learned by constant exercise, and repeated by rote. Hence :

5. Exercises in parsing should be continually varied, so as to exclude any mechanical habit. *Written forms of synoptic parsing* should be required frequently; and the phraseology of recitation should vary from week to week.†

\*See Smith's, Green's, Wells' and Webb's Grammar; seeking not for specimens of critical skill, but for exercises of simple beauty for young classes.

†*Synoptic Parsing* is used for the sake of condensing much matter into small space, in many grammars. As an important aid in study, or as lightening a teacher's labor *in school*, we do not often find it. A specimen is subjoined of written parsing, as applied to nouns and verbs. A glance from a practiced teacher will detect errors in exercises thus arranged, while hours of labor without this con-

In the study of a language, there are two main divisions.—(1.) Its logical force or meaning, and, (2.) its grammatical laws or mechanical construction. We have alluded to exercises in paraphrase, as important preparation for a reading lesson. This exercise takes hold of the logical department. As a final and *test* exercise, by which to prove the attainment of a class in the technical or mechanical mastery of language—the following is offered :

6. Grammatical paraphrase is an exercise perhaps the most compendious and difficult that can be devised for this branch of study. By it is meant, the production of two sentences or paragraphs, whose *sense* shall be diverse, but whose syntax and grammatical quality—i. e. whose parsing shall be absolutely identical. A short specimen is subjoined.

Sentence. “Wit *is* to life, *what* bells *are* to horses, not expected to draw *the* load, but only to jingle while the horses draw.”

Paraphrase. Rest *is* for labor, *what* ebb-tides *are* for floods, never intended to rule *the* ocean, nor even to last till the waves return. This paraphrase is faulty intentionally, in the words “ebb-tides,” (compound) “bells,” (simple); “horses,” (com. gend.) “floods,” (neut. gend.); “last,” (neuter) “jingle,” (active); “waves,” “horses;” “return,” (regular); “draw,” (irregular.) A perfect paraphrase of this sentence is possible, except of the words in italic, which have no grammatical equivalents in our language; let teachers test the difficulty of this exercise by trying this sentence.

7. An appetite, a motive for this study must be sought for, from the love which all minds have, to do original thinking. Experimentally it has been found the most intensely fascinating

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densation on the part of the scholar, will hardly suffice to correct seven or eight exercises.

EXERCISE. Sentence.—Little *children*, love one another.

Syntax,	<i>Children</i> love.	Syntax.	Children <i>love</i> or
Pt. of Sp.	Noun.	Pr. of Sp.	Verb. [ <i>love ye</i> .
Class.	Common.	Class by <i>form</i> .	Regular.
Gender.	Common.	Class by mean'g.	Transitive.
Number.	Plural.	Voice.	Active.
Person.	Second.	Mood.	Imperative.
Case.	Nom. or Indpstt.	Tense.	Present.
Rule illustrated.	“The subject of a finite verb is always in the Nomin. Case,” or, “The name of a person or thing addressed,” &c.	Person.	Second.
		Number.	Plural.
		Agreement.	Children or ye.
		Rule illustrated.	“A finite verb must agree with the meaning of its subject in number and person.”



study which can be offered to a learner. That English grammar is usually interesting or useful in our schools as they are, cannot be truly affirmed. The fault is not in the study, but in the incapacity of the teacher.

1st. [contin.] LANGUAGE. "*Analysis and [synthesis] Composition.*"

The inquiring teacher will find so much practical matter upon these two points in "Green's Analysis," and "Parker's Exercises in English Composition," two very cheap and accessible school books, that little more in detail needs to be said here.

One exceedingly comprehensive and valuable exercise should be mentioned.

Each evening, let from two to six words be announced to *all* the school that can write. Let these words be important and useful ones; they should be, if possible, *radicals*, and not mere derivative words. Every scholar that can, should prepare a written exercise at home, embracing the following points. 1. Spelling. 2. Notation of the orthoepy. 3. Definition. 4. Part of speech. 5. Illustration by an original sentence; of the meaning and use of each one of the six words. 6. Syntax of each sentence.\*

The teacher should from time to time limit and vary the subjects upon which the school shall compose his *true* sentence; one day Geography, next History, next Grammar, &c.

In preparing this exercise, and in the various recitations based upon it, more profitable study may be secured than by any other one study that can be devised.

For advanced classes may be added to the above requirements—7. Analysis of each sentence. 8. Derivative words based upon the words given. 9. Synonymes and Paraphrase. 10. Metre and prosody, &c.

We take leave of this subject, LANGUAGE, only requesting of every teacher to think out some course of instruction which shall consist with our fundamental principles, and still make this department as relatively important in school, as it must evidently become in life. Men are oftener *thought-tied* than *tongue-tied*; slower of mind than of speech; blind in their

\*Example of this exercise. Man-u-script, (*n.* and *adj.*) Definition. A piece of writing; any thing written by hand; *adj.* Written by hand.

Illustration (as a noun.) In the Patent Office at Washington, may still be seen the original manuscript of the famous Declaration of Independence.

reasonings often, when the fault is unjustly laid upon their style.

In brief, then, it is here claimed: *That spelling, reading, grammar, composition*,—LANGUAGE—as studies, should address and develop the mind, rather than the mere eye, tongue and hand. That their usefulness should be demonstrated in every part of school exercises and intercourse, rather than in set classes and formal memory of practising lessons.

## 2d. ARITHMETIC AND MATHEMATICAL INSTRUCTION.

We now touch the main study that is taught in our schools. The reason why it is made so prominent a branch of instruction in all our schools, is not easy to give. Arithmetic, as a matter of fact, is a far less useful study for educational purposes, than a language.

We have already seen with regard to the study of language, our fundamental principles working some change in the usual methods of teaching spelling, &c. In like manner, it is believed, our mathematical instructions need some little change.

Numbers are exact; mathematical rules are without exceptions, and the reasonings absolutely demonstrative. Hence:

1. The value of arithmetic as a study, is found in the illustration which it gives of absolute exactness and truth of reasoning and result. Mathematics alone afford this training.

Words in general have six or seven different significations; sentences nine times in ten, even the compositions of our best authors, are, critically speaking, ambiguous. Mathematical terms and propositions may be perfectly definite, incapable of the least shade of ambiguity. Hence:

2. The value of arithmetic as a study, is found in the training it gives in concise and yet accurate speech and composition.

It is often difficult, in the ordinary studies of school, to draw the line between arbitrary facts and dependent truths or conclusions. [See Principles I. and II.] But throughout their whole range, mathematical studies yield readily to this analysis; there are but two sets of arbitrary facts, viz.: Nomenclature and Notation. All else is inferable. Hence:

3. The value of arithmetic as a school study, is found in the ease with which a teacher can learn to teach it well. Possibly this consideration is the cause of its having universally assumed so prominent a rank in school.

4. Its practical value as an essential requisite for success in life, needs no mention. It is proper, however, to say, that, of the various principles taught in our arithmetics, comparatively few scholars use more than the elementary rules in after life; so that its practical value is, after all, less, far less, than

many suppose. Merchants, bankers, mechanics and farmers, all, usually look to books and tables, and mechanical arithmetics, for the solution of the few extraordinary problems they meet, which will not yield to the multiplication and addition tables. Hence, as compared with Language, or even with geography and history, arithmetic, as a practical attainment, is of slight value, if we may judge by the habits of men whom we meet.

The following propositions, introductory to the brief practical suggestions given to the Institute, are here brought together, for the sake of convenience.

1. To be able to get the answer to every example in an arithmetic, implies no arithmetical knowledge of any value.—In life we work to find an unknown result. In school we too often work to find a known result. Often does it happen that the learned Sophomore, fresh from his mensuration and surveying, stands helplessly wondering, what the area of his father's hilly farm may be, or wisely guessing at the altitude of his village spire. So, too, the ciphering school boy, never dreams that life will furnish him questions enough, but never a convenient "key" to tell him when he answers rightly.

2. The converse of the first remark is also true, viz.: Failure in obtaining the right result to a question in school, by no means implies arithmetical ignorance. This is obvious,

3. Simply to pass through an arithmetic, absorbing its teachings, is almost profitless. Such a course throws away the valuable training which has been spoken of, viz.: Discriminating between those parts which must be from their arbitrary nature simply received—absorbed by the mind—and those more living parts and truths which ought to spring up and grow in the mind of the learner; neither is any use made of the invaluable training to exactness of reasoning which arithmetic affords.

4. To go through the arithmetic using "baby-talk," or childish redundancy and inelegance of expression, either in teaching or in recitation, (and this is all too common in our best schools,) throws away another element of value already mentioned, viz.: Training to concise and elegant speech. "How many times will 4 go into 8?" "9 won't go exactly into 83, for there's 2 over!" "To prove whether I've got the right answer to this sum, I add this and this together, and then if it's like that, it's right." (Quotations from schools visited in Litchfield, Co.) How much better for a class and teacher understandingly to say—Divide 8 by 4, and what will be the quotient? 9 will not measure 83, or 83 is not a multiple of 9.—To see whether my work [not answer,] is correct, I add the remainder to the subtrahend, and if the sum equals the

minuend, the work is correct. It would be easy to illustrate further and more strikingly this point. Space will not allow. Let it be borne in mind by the teacher, that every substantive idea that can arise in arithmetic, has its own appropriate name, exclusively its own. Circumlocution need rarely be resorted to.

5. Merely to assign lessons, and look at "answers," to see that they agree with the "key," may be easy teaching. Two, or at most, four ordinary examples from our arithmetics, are more than a class can properly study. They can get the answers to twenty, with very great ease; but they cannot get the training which arithmetic lessons should give. A mathematical reasoner is as far superior to a mere accountant, as the human voice is superior to a sweet organ-pipe.

These introductory principles are of value as guides in teaching. A few illustrations of their application in elementary instruction are subjoined.

We have said that Nomenclature and Notation are the only arbitrary facts within the scope of mathematical instruction. In the following dialogue, the teacher's questions are designed to exert the learner's mind to thought; wherever an arbitrary fact or name is given by the teacher it is italicised.

[*Mem.* The class is supposed to know how to *count* orally from 1 to 100, and to be able to make the figures 0 to 9 understandingly. The lesson is upon *Notation*.]

T. "Count from 1 to 10; who can?" Sch. "1, 2, 3, &c." T. "From 10 to 20; who?" 2d Sch. "11, 12, 13, [*thirteen, fourteen, &c.*]" T. [to 1st sch.] "What was the last word you said?" Sc. "*Ten*." T. [to 2d sch.] "What did you say after 12?" Sch. "*Thirteen*." T. "You, [1st sch.] said *Ten*, and you, [2d sch.] said *Thirteen*. Which is larger?" Sch. "*Thirteen*." T. "How much larger?" S. "Three." T. "What does *Thir* sound like?" S. "Three." T. "What does *teen* sound like?" S. "*Ten*." T. "What does *Thirteen* mean?" S. "Three and *Ten*." T. "14?" S. "Four and *Ten*," &c. T. "*Teen*" always means "*and ten*," and "*Ty*" (after similar question upon 30, 40, 50, &c.) means *times ten*," &c. until 100 can be *written*.

T. "After you had counted 9 *ty* or *tens* and 9 units more, what did you say?" Sc. "*Hundred*." T. "How many hundred?" Sc. "*One hundred*." T. "Yes. Write *One* for me on the board. Write one *Ten* for me. Write one *Hundred* for me. How many units? [Note.—This abstract term *unit* is nonsense to a child. It should, in instruction, always be associated with some convenient thing for constant use—as a shot, or grain of wheat, or barley, or small bean—small enough and cheap enough to allow the teacher to make successive



bags of ten, hundred, and thousand, for the sake of clear illustration.] How many shot did you count before you said ten?"

T. "How many shot make one Ten-bundle? How many Ten bags did you count before you said *one* Hundred-bundle?"

"Now, if I put one shot into this Hundred-bundle, (doing it as the remark is made, thus addressing the *eye* as well as the ear,) how many shot?" Sch. "One hundred bundles and one shot," &c. &c. T. "What shall we call this, now that I have

put together one hundred-bundle, nine ten-bundles and nine shot?" S. "199." T. "But now I add another shot, and do up the whole in *two* bundles. Two what? S. "200," &c.

T. "Now, here's a bigger bundle yet—(showing a bag with 1000 shot in it)—it's full of hundred bundles. How many units (*shot*) in this little bundle?" S. "*Ten*." T. "How many little bundles in this *hundred*-bundle or bag?" S. "*Ten*."

T. "How many hundred-bags do you *guess* there are in this new bag, which you newer saw before?" S. "*Ten*." T. "Now listen. *We call this bag the thousand bag*," &c.

Not to go further in this diffuse style,—it must appear evident to every teacher,—1. That a class would be fascinated by such teachings; and 2. that they would understand, the *bundle or bag system*, at least; and 3. that if these ideas can be transferred to the black-board and slate, Arabic notation is taught.

Draw the outline of the bags upon the board, put a number upon each sketch, gradually lose the bag shape, and let the figures stand, and in the mind of childhood the well taught lesson will be found to remain.

The converse of this operation—Numeration—may come up thus: there are fifty roads by which a teacher may reach the same truth. T. "In Mr. ———'s barn, I saw him trying to measure how much shelled corn, and oats and potatoes and apples there were on his floor; and he worked away and found that all mixed together, there were 100 bushels; of what? of corn? of oats?" T. "Well, he knew how much the oats were worth a bushel, and the corn, and the potatoes; but how shall he find out the value of them all?" Sc. "He must get the oats together, and the corn together," &c. &c. T. "I guess he'd get tired of the job, picking out the corn from the oats; next time he'll be careful not to let them get mixed.—But here I have some *millions* and some *thousands* and some shot, all mixed together; what shall I do first?" &c. &c.

Advancing to addition, we find the same style of illustration practicable, using the "bag system," and requiring the child to do by eye and hand, the very same thing which we wish him soon to do with the mind *only*. The "*carrying one*" is no arbitrary fact to be memorized, for whenever the

child has found 15 shot on the table, he has always made by *common sense* one ten bag and had five shot remaining.

It is not proposed to write a treatise at this time upon arithmetic. If a teacher adopts the suggestions already made, and illustrated elementarily, he will find as he advances in teaching, that from "Notation" to "Miscellaneous Examples," in any arithmetic, there is no necessity for the child to study or memorize a single rule for an operation. If the teacher is ready to give the notation and the nomenclature clearly, every other part of the entire science of numbers, will be found ready to spring up, whenever the attention of the learner is drawn to the subject in its proper place and with its proper connections.\*

There are two departments for labor and attainment, in the pursuit of arithmetic. One we have discussed already as most highly important, the department of mental training. But besides this should be noted and cultivated, manual readiness and neatness of work. To know how to satisfy a problem is, of course, first and most important; to do so rapidly and neatly, is an important accomplishment, and should be carefully sought after by every thorough teacher.

Recitations in arithmetic should be—1. *Fluent* explanations of the operations required by the various examples, using words mathematically, i. e. concisely and exactly. 2. Examination of the style of ciphering, &c. 3. Solution of examples, more or less of them upon the black-board. N. B. Every recitation should have its written exercise, to evidence that every scholar has done some *thinking* since the last recitation. [See remarks upon Language.]

Teaching should be conducted by questions, and never by the rehearsal of rules or set forms of expression, except in giving arbitrary laws of notation, etc. The idea should be thoroughly developed in the mind of the learner, before any set language be allowed. Teach the thought first; then give the words, or require the rules of the book to be memorized. To memorize a rule first, and then work by it, makes arithmetic a mere empirical puzzle book and key. To think out an operation, and then describe that operation in language, makes arithmetic a noble begetter of close thought and accurate speech.

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\*[Manifestly many of our Arithmetics are faulty in their arrangement; as they do not allow this strictly progressive and productive character to be observed by a teacher. The arithmetic usually known as "Thompson's Practical Arithmetic," is in general use, and is as little liable to criticism upon this score as any with which the writer is acquainted.]

Large classes of *unequal* individual attainments, are no material disadvantage, if instruction be imparted as suggested above. Large classes, short lessons, much thought, few words, neat penmanship, and slow growth, will help to make good arithmeticians.

A thousand detailed hints are omitted here. The principles already discussed, imply them all, and, if adopted, will assuredly bring the teachable teacher to a better comprehension of the whole matter, than any words or hints of another. One only in addition to what have been already given.

The skillful teacher will *compose* more examples for the exercise of the classes in arithmetic, than he will take from the book. Commercial problems from a newspaper of late date; domestic problems suggested by a thousand incidents observed in "boarding round;" social problems taken from the tax books and census returns; questions such as these, are the questions which the learner must deal with in life; why not then, in school.

### 3rd. GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

In discussing the subjects, Language and Arithmetic, enough has been said, to make evident the style of teaching and illustration, which are deemed desirable. Therefore, in the discussion of the present and succeeding subjects, a brief statement of points worthy of attention must suffice.

1. The indiscriminate use of Geography in schools—the habit of rushing through the book or atlas—learning a lesson one day merely for recitation, and forgetting it the next, neither teacher nor scholar clearly perceiving the value of the study; is certainly very objectionable.

2. Studying lessons about Kamschatka and the Fejee Islands, before the contents of one's native county are known, seems rather absurd.

3. Talking about seas, lakes, oceans, &c. when the learner deems every puddle a lake, and every brooklet a river, and every inland lake he ever saw, an ocean, may indeed, be talking geography, but it surely is not learning any thing useful or true.

4. Describing the political divisions of Europe before the political divisions of Connecticut are known; learning the boundaries of New York, ere the scholar has practical sense enough to describe the boundaries of the school-house, or the town in which he lives; these and similar upsettings of natural order, may, indeed, make a showy class; may win applause from an undiscerning committee, but they surely do not give useful knowledge or discipline of mind to the learner.

Similar criticism may justly be passed upon many loose

methods of teaching and reciting History. It is believed firmly, that every study that belongs properly to our public schools, may be shown to a class, as obviously so useful and desirable, that no further motive or stimulation to industry will be needed.

5. Singing classes, that in *unison* can sing all the names of the atlas in their proper order and place, give very showy results, and develop remarkable readiness in verbal memorizing. It is certain that little geography is learned.

Leaving this always easy task of fault-finding, some affirmative suggestions may prove of value.

1. In early youth, it is always so unwise to talk about things whose realization in the learner's mind is of necessity imperfect, that the first labor in every study should be, to ensure a perfect conception of the things, the names about to be used. Hence geographies always begin with definitions of terms. Let it be noted here, however, that to early childhood, definitions are as blind and dark oftentimes, as the thing defined. This holds true of all definitions in every study offered to childhood.

Very rarely can a definition of a term be successfully addressed to the *ear* of the young learner. Ear-knowledge must be explained to the eye. Eye-knowledge must have its definitions addressed to the ear; and, in general, it is a law of early childhood, that: Successful definition or explanation must enter the mind by a different avenue from the one by which the thing explained seeks admission. As a scholar advances and gains power of conception and of language, of course this law becomes less and less widely applicable, but is never entirely forsaken.

All geographical terms, all expressions of size and distance, require express development by the teacher. The concise words of the book are always more easily learned; but it is claimed here, that in such a course, nothing is learned but the words. The hill, the valley, the puddle, the brook, the bounded field, &c. are *little* geographical facts, which address the eye. These are available, therefore, as definitions. Maps of the school-room, of the yard, of the farm, of the village, should precede maps of the world, &c.

2. Relative size and distances. Here is a most difficult subject to teach well. But it can be accomplished. Beginning with things known and measurable, and mapping them, (e. g. beginning with the inkstand, next the desk, next the



room, house, lot, field, town, county, state, &c.) it is easy to call the attention intelligently, then, to the fact that maps of the same size, are often representatives of very various magnitudes. Finally, one large map of the world, (Bidwell's Hemispheres,) large enough to exhibit Connecticut, may then, with some hope of success, be used to give some idea of the vast globe.

3. The geometry of our maps—the meridians and the parallels) may in the same progressive manner, be brought within the comprehension of a class.

4. Topical knowledge, of boundaries, population, products, &c. should begin at a center—the school-house,—and radiate, or rather, circulate round it, in larger and larger arcs, as long as the study continues. It is not urged in these hints, to throw aside the geographies in use, as being useless. It is only urged that the order of the arrangement followed by them be thrown aside, and the books retained and used as we use a dictionary; not to read straight through, but to consult when we wish to obtain some precise information.—This is the use which a teacher should make of all text-books in school.

5. Fifty copies of any commercial paper, all of one date, will be found suggestive of more interesting and useful geographical, arithmetical and miscellaneous, yet useful questions, than any one term of study in a school will suffice to answer. The lad who can answer all the geographical questions that rise in one copy of the New York Tribune, or Journal of Commerce, is more truly proficient in the study, than one who can repeat a gazetteer word for word; the former has practical, useful knowledge, the latter has only "*book learning*."

As well here as any where, it may be remarked, that a newspaper is about as cheap and useful a school book as can be introduced into our schools.

6. In connection with History, Geography becomes very interesting and useful. A map of every battle ground, drawn on the slate or black-board, goes far to break up the monotony of a memorized recitation in history. A checker-board map of Philadelphia, does more to teach its peculiar squareness of corner, than any amount of recitation.

7. To cultivate the memory *alone* in the study of history and geography, is unwise. Yet it should not be neglected. Let a class be divided in two equal parts. Then let these two divisions *alternate*, one of them memorizing words close-

ly, and the other reciting in their own language. Thus one half of the class will explain for the benefit of the other, while, if the alternation be observed, no injustice will be done to the other half.

8. Map drawing *from memory*, is invaluable. Let it be done on the black-board—the floor—the marble-ground, and even (if need be,) upon the fence.

Finally. When the teacher is assured that geographical ideas are really in the mind, then, and not till then, is it profitable to memorize and recite definitions, which now stand as mere exercises in language, just as was observed of rules and principles in arithmetic.

Similar principles should guide the teacher in conducting recitations in History. Every town in Connecticut has its local history; and this local history, which every child may learn from its parents, (at least, some single fact may be so learned by every child, so that the aggregate will form at school a local history,) will be found to have very immediate connection with the history contained in the book;—and just as soon as this connection becomes obvious to a class, so soon does the study cease to be mere memory or dry words. How and when the meeting house and school house were built; how the nature and time of election, town and state, happen to be as they are; why some towns send two, and others but one delegate, to the legislature; why they go sometime to Hartford and sometimes to New Haven, &c. &c.—such questions as these are the proper introduction to history, and are surely much more useful, practical and interesting, than to begin, “Who was Ponce de Leon?” and then grind on through France, Spain and England, with a multitude of hard names and old dates besieging the memory, and perhaps *never* reaching or learning aught of Connecticut.

Recitations in both Geography and History, allow the preparation of written exercises with very great advantage. A scholar cannot be weaned too soon from the habit of waiting for a question and then answering just it and no more. Every recitation ought to tend to a development of *language*, as has already been observed. “Tell what you know about the settlement of Connecticut;” is a far better question than “When was Connecticut settled?” The former requires a sentence, while the latter requires only a date. Few men are able to tell what they know about a subject. Hence the value of school training to attain this valuable art.

## 4th. PENMANSHIP AND DRAWING.

1. Exercises in imitative hand-work may precede alphabetic instruction with great profit. Early to observe shapes and relative magnitudes can be trained in no way so well as by encouraging playful drawing.

2. The training to write, and the training to elegant penmanship, are distinct departments. It has been said already, that the alphabet should be learned by the eye, ear and hand, simultaneously. Letters should be copied, nay, words should be written, and sentences constructed, long before a child is put through a course of "pot hooks and trammels."

Just as in Language, a distinction was made between the logical and the technical construction, so in writing (which is but a department of language,) there is the—(1.) writing for the sake of the *sense* written, and (2.) writing for the sake of the *forms* written. Of these two, the former is most important, though there is no need of either being neglected. Lawyers usually *write*, yet but few lawyers are penmen.—Hence :

3. It is claimed that the hours and days spent in copy-book writing, if they are intended as the *whole training* to be given in this art, are an almost useless waste of time. If every recitation in school requires a previously written exercise, a little attention to the mechanical execution of each exercise, will do more for the *writing* of the school, than a dozen copy-books to each scholar.

(To be continued.)

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Two Canadians, a short time since, were looking at the picture of Hon. Daniel Webster, at the Revere House, Boston. "Who is this Mr. Webster;" asked one, "of whom every one is talking about?" "Oh," replied his friend, "he's the man that defended the Constitution in the last war, and made the big Dictionary."

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## ENGLISH SCHOOL AT KINGSTON, R. I.

The Spring Term of this Institution commenced on Monday, April 14th. The School is under the charge of Mr. FRANKLIN E. PEASLEE, an experienced and successful teacher, assisted by Miss MERIAM. Scholars can be accommodated with board and lodging, on reasonable terms, in the family of the Principal of the School, or in other respectable families in the village.

Reference for the character of the School, can be made to the Commissioner of Public Schools, or to Rev. Joel Mann, at Kingston.

## NOTICES OF BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS.

## YOUNG'S CLASS BOOK OF CHEMISTRY :

This is designed as a popular introduction to the science of Chemistry, and to contain all that is necessary for classes in Schools, simplifying and rendering interesting what has been generally considered very dry. Mr. Young is the author of the "Chart of Chemistry," which is very highly recommended by Professor Silliman, Dr. Chilton, and other distinguished Chemists. Published by D. APPLETON & Co., New York.

## MARSHALL'S BOOK OF ORATORY :

This is a book of selections, for reading and declamation, prepared by E. A. Marshall, for the New York Free Academy. A large portion of its extracts from speeches, are from those of American orators. It contains also, a good selection of dialogues and comic pieces. We are glad to see that the authorship of "Old Grimes" is credited to Albert G. Greene, Esq., of Providence, to whom it really belongs.

## QUACKENBOSCH'S FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION :

This is intended for the youngest classes in school, and to teach composition and grammar in connection. The author thinks the treatises in general use, too difficult for beginners, and intends this to supply the deficiency.

## LATHAM'S HANDBOOK OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE :

Dr. Latham is well known for the works he has lately published on the English Language. In this work, the results of his studies are published in a more convenient size, for academies and schools. It contains a historical account of the history and different periods of progress of the English language, and illustrates the grammar of the English by frequent references to the corresponding portions of the grammar of other languages, ancient and modern. D. Appleton & Co.

THE RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE will be published monthly. All pamphlets, exchange papers, or communications, should be addressed to E. R. POTTER, Providence, R. I. Letters (post paid) may be directed to Providence or Kingston. Terms, 50 cents per annum, in advance.



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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## HINTS TO TEACHERS.

[From Mr. Barnard's Report of the Exercises of the Institute held at  
Wolcottville, Ct., Sept. 30, 1850.]

[Concluded from page 249.]

It should be borne in mind, though that the copy-book *is* of value, yet its only value is to teach the best *forms* for letters. To prepare elegant manuscript, elegant letters are of but little importance, compared with even margins, distinct paragraphs, use of capitals, absence of blots, neatness of erasures and interlineations; and in the various writings for business, mere letter-shapes sink into insignificance, if the clerk understands the symmetry of shape, of arrangement, of folding, filing and superscribing all the various papers he must handle—notes, letters, drafts, receipts, orders, bills, accounts, &c.

We never use copies and copy-books for writing after we have left school; why not, then, let school writing be done on paper. The best copy-book for any school is a half quire of paper, and a cheap portfolio; and the best copy for any scholar is miscellaneous writing, supervised by an intelligent, quick-eyed teacher. Let it be borne in mind that no labor-saving device is intended in any of these suggestions. The true teacher must *work*.

4. Whenever a scholar evinces an aptitude for drawing, instead of forcing him to some unlawful indulgence of it upon his desk, or the school door, or in his school book, where some grotesque caricature stands as testimony of his skill; time and paper and pencil should be allowed; but in most small schools, classes for drawing would prove difficult and profitless. Few teachers are competent to superintend them, and still fewer parents would allow the expenditure of time and money necessary for the attainment of any considerable excellence. Maps, machines, problems in arithmetic, illustrations

of domestic utensils of value, (as parts of a *common sense education*,) should be drawn frequently. Every teacher should learn to express any shape desired, upon the black-board; ability to interest and benefit a class is increased thereby fully one-third. Weights and measures, shapes described, fields, &c. &c., should frequently be sketched upon the board, and offered to the school to imitate and excel.

#### 5th. ARTICULATION AND VOCAL EXERCISES.

1. The division of this subject into two parts, as given in the heading, should be observed also, in practical teaching.—Many a noisy man fails to “make himself *heard*,” as he thinks, when the defect is really one of articulation and not of sound. Vocal or voice, or vowel-training; and consonant articulation form two distinct branches of instruction and practice.

2. Learned physiological directions are out of place in an ordinary school. To draw a long breath and retain it a long time is good practice for the voice; better still if accompanied with sharp exercise or exertion. Let boys try who can draw a breath, and run farthest without renewing it, &c. &c. Upright position, prominence of chest and square shoulders, every careful teacher will strive to attain for his school, independently of their value in vocal practice.

3. Vowel sounds, exploded and protracted; long messages spoken at a distance; shouting at recess, and while going to and returning from school; imitations of domestic animals, singing, &c.; all of them given and received not as *tasks*, but as real buoyant fun, are the best vocal practice attainable—a thousand times better than all the dull reading that was ever invented. Add to these helps, one general rule, that *recitations must always be audible across the room*, and vocal practice will have had its full share of attention.

4. Correct articulation is more difficult to secure; it is so for various reasons. Few teachers are able to articulate with clearness and precision themselves; all a scholar's out of school practice tends to promote carelessness, and fix permanently faulty habits; exercises designed to promote elegance in this art, are dull and mechanical, requiring wearisome labor on the part both of teacher and class. These and many similar considerations have virtually expelled from our schools all practice in this art.

Unless an interest on the part of the learner can be excited in this pursuit, of course it should be omitted in school. We should adhere to our principles and excite an appetite ere we offer food.

1. Place two scholars at extremes of the room, or better yet, two or three rods apart in the open air, and require one to dic-

tate, if he can, so that the other may write *detached* words, such as *maim, name, bed, dead, shoe, should, decrease, decrees, post, boast, weather, whether, &c. &c.*; indeed, any simple word, without any context from which to guess the sound meant, will be found nine times in ten, utterly incommunicable from scholar to scholar. Now let the teacher show that such words can be enunciated so as to be never mistaken.—Show that leud speaking is never so valuable as distinct speaking. It will be found that the practiced teacher can *whisper* a single word, so as to be understood at a greater distance, than any scholar can overcome by the loudest shout.—To shout “*me*,” “*knee*,” irregularly interchanging them, and yet be clearly understood at a distance of twenty rods, is more than any, save the most highly practised elocutionist can do. Let this inability of both teacher and scholar be made obvious in every possible way. Devise games, and set the scholars to finding hard words, and in this pleasant, irregular way much may be done.

2. Orthoepic spelling calls attention to sounds and trains the ear, though as a practice to the organs of speech, it is of but little value. By orthoepic spelling, is meant—spelling a word and then returning to describe the sound of each letter or group in the word, according to the pronouncing key in the spelling book or dictionary. Thus :

“H-e-a-r (har) t-y (ti.) A dissyllable. Accent on the first syllable. *H* is a breathing, having no vocal sound (let the breath be given here); in this word it becomes vocal by taking the vowel *a*, and we have *ha*. *E* is silent. *A* has the Italian or open sound. *R* is almost silent when it ends a syllable; here it has a slight trill. *T*, &c. &c. It would certainly sound strangely to hear such talk as this in one of our district schools, from either scholar or teacher. Nevertheless, it is *true* talk, and may be made interesting and profitable.

3. Whispering classes, whose peculiarity it shall be to recite in a whisper, and yet be understood across the room, will be found to train articulation very rapidly. The interest in them is soon exhausted; their charm lies in their novelty, hence they should be used sparingly.

4. Unison exercises, made as one voice, by “beating time” with the hand, and articulating at every second beat.

5. Care that the practice and instructions of these exercises be not annulled by neglect of speech every where else. All the school should be trained as critics of the speech of all the school all the time, and the ear of a teacher should be so trained as never to allow an error in speech to pass uncorrected.

6th. DISCIPLINE ; *Order of Exercises, Rolls, School Government.*

1. The difference between a truly professional teacher, and one who simply has knowledge enough to teach, lies mainly in the fact, that the former has a system, and knows each moment what his great purposes are, and is able to say at any time just what he expects in the future as to the nature of his own daily labors ; while the latter lives "from hand to mouth," unable to plan a scheme, and perchance, unable to execute one if devised for him. They differ, just as a Liverpool packet master differs from Columbus ; the first starts from New York to make Liverpool and no other port. The latter set sail and kept sailing "to see what he could see." Undoubtedly Columbus was the greater man, yet passengers would usually prefer a voyage with our modern packet master.

*Every teacher should have a system.* A faulty system is better than none at all.

2. No headway can be made without classes, definite and regular ; without an order of daily exercise ; without precision of time and class changes ; without connection between successive exercises of the same class ; without accurate rolls ; and without parental acquaintance and co operation, or at least, approval.

Classes are usually too numerous and too small. Schools, such as are found in this State, rarely require more than four or at most five classes. Each class can profitably enjoy but four recitations ; and many of these, as writing, geography, and *all* memory recitations, may be held, uniting two or more classes.

True, discontent will arise in all our irregular schools at such a step as economical classification. This discontent the teacher must endure for a time, it will soon pass away. Varieties of text-books is an evil which seems larger than it really is ; a thorough teacher will be above text-books, and so, independent of them. But this evil can be, by a faithful and *prudent* teacher much lessened if not altogether removed.

The roll book ought to show—1. Attendance ; 2. Punctuality ; 3. Conduct ; 4. Character of each recitation.

It will be found that three grades of recitations are as many as can be distinctly discriminated, viz. : excellent, (worthy of praise,) good or tolerable,) such as the mass of scholars are wont to give,) bad, (implying culpable negligence or idleness on the part of the scholar.) The same grades are available for the recording of conduct. Any notation may be used ; it is recommended, however, that *good* or *tolerable* be always denoted by the *absence* of any mark, as, in this way, time and manual labor are economized.



The roll book should be of such form as will allow a monthly abstract from it to be easily made, to be sent to the parents of each scholar.

The faithful teacher will, next to the bible, study the roll book of his school. In it, if properly kept, he may read his past history, his present success and the grounds for labor and hope in the future. The roll book is the central wheel of the school machine; the teacher is, indeed, the soul, but without a well kept roll, he is a wandering, uneasy soul, bodiless and confused.

System, order, regularity and intelligent teaching in a school will cause a teacher to forget the bug bear government; a well taught school needs no government. The Institute wisely devoted little time to *talk* about school government; nothing can be more profitable. If we can "*educate*," (see introductory principles,) we can govern, and never know that we are doing so.

Instead of any suggestions which might with interest be introduced here, it seems better to leave the subject abruptly, referring the teacher to a treatise which says all that can or need be said upon the subject—"*The New Testament of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ*,"—a guidance surely as safe as it is complete.

#### 7th. MUTUAL RELATION OF PARTIES INTERESTED IN A SCHOOL.

The attention of the Institute was at various times drawn to this subject. Except one brief half hour, no time was allotted to its exclusive consideration.

It is, no doubt true, that each of the five parties, parents, teachers, scholars, school officers, and the public, have their own peculiar duties. Yet little that is valuable will be accomplished, if either one of these five parties sets itself up to criticise or condemn the others. As a caution and an injunction appropriate to all five, it may briefly be said:

Beware of fault finding; it is very easy to detect fault. Be industrious, laborious; the school needs us all.

The following is a brief outline of the duties of these five parties, respectively.

Parents—To sustain the responsibility, and they alone, of securing the welfare and education of childhood. Reward and punishment is in their hands. Supervision of a child's habits, neatness, punctuality, &c. &c.—honesty, manliness, &c.—religion, politics, &c.—in short, the entire responsibility for childhood's welfare, has been laid by the Creator upon the parents of the child.

Teachers—To accept temporarily, such a share of the du-

ties that primarily devolve upon parents, as can be more conveniently and thoroughly discharged by a school, than by a family organization. Intellectual exercise, access of information, social training, require a kind of supervision, which parents cannot readily exercise. But the teacher is, or ought to be, if parents were faithful, only auxiliary, and never principal in the estimation of childhood.

Scholars—To render, during the years of their dependence, a willing, intelligent, and entire obedience to the wishes of parents, and of teachers, *so far as they express the parental will truly*; to practice those virtues enjoined upon them by superior wisdom and experience, always trusting willingly the guidance of those who merit such confidence.

School Officers—To oversee the building, premises and finances of the school; to protect, sustain and defend the character of both teachers and scholars, as long as they are members of school; to educate and care for the community in all school matters; to observe and advise with a teacher as to the interior management of the school, in no case interfering with a teacher's labors, nor attempting to practice teachership in school themselves, unless requested to by the teacher himself.

Public in general—To bear the expense of schools; (the school fund, by itself, never did, and never will sustain a decent school any considerable time;) to attend school meetings and insist upon knowing from officers what has been done; to avoid gossiping rumors and tale bearing; to encourage weary teachers by giving them good homes, honorable rank and suitable compensation; to vote intelligently in such a way as will ensure success to every general State movement in behalf of schools and teachers.

From these general outlines which have been sketched with little regard to accuracy of phrase, several important specifications of duty should be inferred.

Parents, *as they are*, and parents *as they should be*, are very distinct classes—as widely different as are ordinary teachers and truly professional teachers. There is many an orphan, whose parents are living. Hence, oftentimes the teacher must act both as parent and teacher; and in such cases, parental responsibility actually rests upon the teacher. Too often may teachers be heard saying, "he's got such a father that there's no use in trying to do any thing for him in school;" far better were it to say, "he has no good at home, I *must* do something for him at school;" for a teacher is not sent for them that are whole and need no teacher, but for them that are sick.

If a child has intelligent, faithful parents, expulsion may be

often expedient ; but for the neglected, and the poor, for the child of the outcast, the school is the only home ; ye shall not banish him thence.

It is part of a teacher's duty to educate parents to their duty ; and it is part of a parent's duty to educate teachers to their duty ; a quarrel always implies culpability on both sides.—Let the stronger bear the burdens of the weaker, for there is load enough to burden all.

If parents stand for rights, and teachers stand for law, and school officers stand for form and ceremony, each party running his fence to keep out intrusion, and standing watchfully to convict his co-laborer of neglect, there will surely cause enough be found for contention. If after a contention has begun between teacher and parent, or committee, the teacher talks about rights and sets up to assert them, it is easy to discern the end of all such unprofessional acts. A teacher's strength and panacea for all evils, in and out of school, is self-sacrificing industry. If parents are impertinent and unreasonable, labor for their children, give way, give way, give up ! but strive to educate the child, and soon the breach will be healed scarless. If officers are meddlesome, officious, and wilful, made so by the little brief authority the law has given them ; bear with their presence, raise no remonstrance, pursue your systematized course silently, laboriously ; strive night and day for a good school, and committee men will soon be forgotten.

That which is urged upon teachers when evils surround them, is equally true as the remedy when committees and parents find themselves associated with incompetent or unreasonable teachers ; the principle is simply this—that nine times in ten, if a fault finder will cease complaining and do the neglected duty of his negligent neighbor, he will save time, reprove and reform his neighbor, and, better than all, cause no wear and tear of conscience, or sacrifice of right.

Hard workers may have difficulties in their hours of idleness ; fortunately the faithful teacher can have no idle hours.

Reward and punishment ought to be in the parent's hand, even when their ground is school conduct ; for thus the scholar learns that teacher and parent are but continuations each of the other. School is helped by home, and home is helped by school ; but if parents will not assume this duty thankfully, then of course, it devolves upon the teacher.

Punctuality and extra school virtues belong to the parent's sphere ; but if parents neglect, teachers must assume their culture. Thus as to all the parties whose welfare is affected by a school, though there are peculiar duties resting upon each party, yet it is equally the duty of all to make up for the in-

competency or idleness of any one, for the school is what we labor for, not our own rights, or will, or character.

There are few teachers who have really studied their profession, but such rarely find difficulty in their relations to society or the school; they are usually, as they ought to be, virtually independent.

#### StH. SELECTION OF STUDIES, BOOKS, ETC.

A prominent fault in our schools, is, their desire to teach a smattering of everything; a love of large books and a seeking after novelty. In Litchfield county scholars may be heard stammering learnedly about the "traction of gravity," "the belts of Jubiter," and "the spinal cord," who cannot read the bible well, or even fluently. Algebra is often coveted; geometry is well admired; English history craved. Large reading books are found in the hands of A B C graduates, and critical grammars are swallowed down whole by scholars and teachers, without thought and without after digestion.

There is not a school in the county that cannot be benefitted and intensely interested, too, by lessons drawn from our most elementary school books. Let the Algebras, Astronomies, Geometries, Physiologies, and all large school books go. A Dictionary, Arithmetic, Grammar, United States History, Geography and Atlas, slate, paper, pencils and pens, will be found to be more than the schools can thoroughly use and master.

Avoid a big, learned book, and beware of all book agents, is safe counsel to all teachers. Seek for elegant elementary books, labor to secure thorough elementary instruction, encourage every teacher who keeps "putting the classes back," is safe counsel to parents and school officers.

In assigning studies to scholars, the teacher ought to be able to act intelligently and with independence. A mere wish on the part of a parent, unstudied, and therefore as likely to be foolish as wise, should not bind a teacher; though equally it should not be rudely disregarded. The organization and employment of classes is a duty that belongs to a teacher exclusively. Too many teachers are incompetent to assume this high responsibility; yet surely not as incompetent as most school officers and careless parents.

Still less, then, should a teacher be guided in assigning studies to scholars, by the mere whim or wish of a school boy or girl. When physicians are wont to enquire, upon entering a sick room, "*What shall I prescribe for you to-day?*" it will then be time for a teacher to ask a scholar, "What are you going to study?"

What does this scholar need to study? where lies his darkest ignorance? is the question a teacher must learn to ask, and



then to answer. "I've been through the arithmetic three times," is a fact of little value for the guidance of a teacher. "How much do you know?" calls for quite a different answer. And when a teacher has learned to examine well, and ascertain a scholar's real want, he will rapidly come down from all fancy studies, and find labor enough to be done in the very lowest walks of instruction.

#### 9th. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION.

In what has been said, much is taken for granted, which, very possibly, may be disproved by cool reflection and actual experiment.

The sum of all that has been advanced seems in brief to be, (1.) There are truths which should lie at the foundation of all properly educational effort. (2.) The present state of things in most of our schools does not conform to any intelligible system. (3.) Instruction and school organization may be made systematic by any teacher that will study and labor to accomplish it. (4.) A union of parental and school influence is indispensably necessary for real progress and success. (5.) School officers and the public have a living, not a soulless, mechanical duty to discharge, in behalf of our common schools.

Sufficient illustration has been given to show the feasibility of putting in practice many of the suggestions made, but not enough to serve as a "recipe book," by following which a good school may be compounded.

One conclusion may certainly be drawn, if no more. Teaching is an art and a profession, as worthy of study and ambition to attain excellence in it, as any pursuit in which man can engage.

The sentiments advanced will prove almost revolutionary, if applied suddenly and in all their breadth of application, to our schools as they now are. Even if they all commend themselves to the teacher's approbation, still no prudent man would dream of attempting reform upon all points at once. The discreet teacher will learn how to teach, by taking one subject at a time, and bending his whole power to place it upon a proper footing in his school. Select, as most important, the teaching which A B C scholars require. Let this be perfected. Let the evidence of success be, that for a week and more, the smallest scholar in school has shown himself industrious, cheerful and happy; that all the dull drive of discipline has ceased for them, and that they are as contented at school as little children always seem, at play.

Having gained one point of professional skill, the next will be found more attainable. But above all things, let it be borne in mind, that it is far more difficult to teach very young classes

than it is to "superintend the studies" of a college class; let our first efforts be directed to exceedingly elementary instruction. The want of this is *the* deficiency in our schools as they now are.

The real district school teacher should be willing and able to act as a missionary—a pioneer in the cause of popular education. New school houses, ventilated rooms, perfect desks, scrapers, mats, and dressing rooms, are not to be despised, as accessories to a good school. Yet, an elm tree, with a true, full-hearted teacher beneath it, will be a better school, than any mere money-earning drudge can make, even though he has a palace for his accommodation.

A teacher must, in these days, work without reward, unless he can realize that wealth which money can never measure; a cheerful, contented spirit, as the reward of an unselfish life. Ye cannot serve school and your own pockets.

In concluding this outline of views, which were presented to the Institute, it seems proper to express the keen enjoyment which the writer experienced in presenting them; the pleasure with which he has now complied with the unexpected request of the teachers, to prepare a sketch for reference and preservation; and the earnest desire which he entertains for the advancement of popular education—not by money, nor by show and public festivities, but by Christian zeal on the part of teachers determined to learn to teach, and by awakened effort on the part of parents and citizens, to really and truly educate ALL.

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### THE RELATION OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

The following extracts from a Report of Prof. Andrews, of Marietta, upon the relation between schools and colleges, contain so much good sense upon this subject that we are very glad to republish them. We only regret we cannot give the whole address.—We copy from the Ohio Journal of Education :

Another principle universally recognized, is, that *there must be classification*—classification of schools as well as in schools. The schools themselves must be arranged in classes, as well as the pupils in a particular school. There is no one feature made more prominent than this, by the best instructors in the nation. Its introduction into our towns has wrought a most wonderful transformation. There would be elementary schools for beginners, then others of higher and higher grades, till ample provision should be made for the general education of every child and youth in the State.

We should not expect that each pupil would complete the whole course. Yet the number that would attempt this, would be in pro-

portion to the completeness of the classification, and to the excellence of the instruction in the elementary departments. Nor do we now inquire how many or how high grades should be established in any individual township, town, or city ; we affirm only that, somewhere, institutions should be provided, in which the wants of all might be met. To equalize perfectly the advantages of any system would be manifestly impossible. The more dense the population, the more complete the classification could be made. In the more sparsely settled regions, after progressing as far as their neighborhood schools could carry them thoroughly and economically, the more studious would seek admission into the High School or Academy of the nearest large town. And if any should wish to make acquisitions beyond what the High School could furnish, they must repair to institutions of still higher grade.

Thus far our supposed system. Now, taking the State as a whole, have we not substantially the system already, so far at least as this feature of classification is concerned ? Is there not provision for the child, from his entrance into the primary school, until he shall have finished the whole range of studies deemed necessary to a liberal education ? I do not say that these schools, of whatever grade, are, in every particular, precisely what they should be, but that the institutions exist which profess to furnish, each in its sphere, all that a finished general education requires.

From what has been said, we cannot mistake as to the connection between Schools and Colleges. Colleges constitute the highest grade of our non-professional educational institutions. They are an integral part of the system, sustaining to the High School and Academy precisely the same relation which these sustain to the lower schools.

Until recently, all non-professional institutions have been ranged in three divisions—Common Schools, Academies, and Colleges. Of these three, the College has been much the most specific in its character. It has undertaken a more definite work than either of the others. In them a much greater variety of attainment has always been found. The Academy has admitted multitudes that ought to have been in the School, and the School has been compelled to retain many that should have been found in the Academy. In practice, there has been no boundary line between them, except in the case of a very few of our best Academies. But the College has always had its boundaries on either side. It has required a definite amount of literary attainment for entrance, and the completion of the prescribed course of study, is the completion of the student's connection with it. The inmates of the College have also been required to arrange themselves in classes, that the instruction might be rendered as efficient as possible, by giving ample time to the recitations, and by permitting the instructors to confine themselves to particular branches. Thus, Colleges have ever conformed to the two great features of classification.

The other departments of what I have called general education, are now beginning to follow the example of the College, in the mat-

ter of classification. Formerly, the common school and the academy had no limitation in the range of studies. The pupil might enter when he chose, and remain as long as he chose. And so long as his teacher was willing to hear him, he might study what he chose. Thus, the Teacher was sometimes required to pass from a recitation in the primer to one in Virgil—from one in the elements of numbers to one in Trigonometry. But an improvement has commenced.—The principle of division of labor, so long in use in our colleges, is beginning to be applied to schools. Most of our towns now have their Graded Schools, each possessing a definite course of study, which the pupil must complete before he can pass on to the next higher; and when he has completed it, he *must* pass on. The advantages of this arrangement are so manifest in theory, and in its practical workings it combines so fully both economy and efficiency, that no doubt can be indulged of its general prevalence.

It is sometimes said that “Colleges are behind the age.” It is one of the most general of all generalities, and may mean anything or nothing. Whatever may be intended by it when applied to Colleges, we have seen that one of the greatest improvements introduced into our schools has been adopted from the Colleges; so that, if they are behind the age, they at least have the Union Schools to keep them company.

The College then is, chronologically, the last school in our general school system. Using the most general classification and nomenclature, we have five departments—the Primary, the Secondary, the Grammar School, the High School, and the College, occupying from two to four years each. They all have the same end in view, and differ only in the order of succession. Some think that Colleges are intended specially for professional men; and so many think that High Schools and Academies are for the special benefit of the rich. The two opinions are deserving of equal credit. From the day the boy commences the alphabet, to the day that terminates his collegiate course of study, he is pursuing those studies which the intelligent voice of mankind has pronounced to be the best adapted to the development of his intellectual faculties. Examine the course of study in all the best Union Schools in Ohio, and you will find a remarkable similarity. Go to other States, and it is still the same.—Whence has it arisen? Manifestly from the conviction, in the minds of intelligent men engaged in the work of instruction, that these studies, each in its place, are just what the wants of the pupils require.

If, as I have before supposed, the whole school system were to be reconstructed, should we not have, substantially, the same grades as now exist? It would hardly be affirmed that the highest grade is unnecessary, because some of our young men are too highly educated. Nor would it be said that the studies of that grade could be better pursued without instructors. Professional education is obtained by the aid of teachers, and that, in most of the professions, at a very heavy expense. Much more, then, does general education, which precedes professional, require instructors.



What institutions shall furnish the closing portion of a good general education? Were our High Schools to attempt it with their present organization, they would violate the principle that lies at the basis of Graded Schools. Give them a large corps of instructors, and increase the time to six or eight years, and they might do it.—In that case, however, they must be divided into at least two grades; the upper of which would be, in substance, a College. But, except in the case of our large cities, the expense of such an arrangement would be an insuperable obstacle. The Metropolitan City is now making the experiment with her Free Academy, and we doubt not that it will be successful.

But even if all our large cities had institutions of the highest grade for their own youth, they could not meet the wants of the citizens of our towns and townships. Parents would not send their children to the cities. There must be institutions, located at eligible points, to meet these wants. We have them already, and they are called Colleges. What link is wanting in the system? It may be enlarged and perfected, but it now seems to be a continuous system—an uninterrupted succession of links.

I have dwelt more upon the relation of Colleges to the other parts of the system, because of the vagueness which exists in the minds of not a few, as to the precise place which Colleges occupy in our educational machinery. If the view now presented is the true one, the College is the highest of our institutions for general education, as distinct from professional. The culture which it gives may be more essential to certain occupations than to others, but it is because these require a higher culture. In this, it is not peculiar. It is the same from the beginning of the school course. Especially is it true of the High School and Academy. But who calls these professional? Or what Teacher, who is worthy of the name, would hesitate to affirm that the studies of the High School would be of incalculable value to every lad, no matter what might be his future employment? From beginning to end, through every stage of the educational process, which commences in the primary school and closes with the college, the culture is intended for the future man, as man—as a being endowed by his Creator with noble faculties, which need development; and not for him as a merchant, or a farmer, or a lawyer, in distinction from the other pursuits of life.

When a lad applies for admission to the public schools of this city, is the inquiry made, what is to be his future avocation, and are his studies arranged accordingly? By no means. Who can tell, in this land of ours, what is to be a lad's future career? The only inquiry is, what are his present attainments? These known, certain studies are assigned him, which are precisely what he needs; and no material alteration would be made, could the instructor pierce the veil of futurity and know absolutely the occupation of the future man.—Neither, I venture to assert, does any superintendent excuse a lad from the study of arithmetic because he avows that he has no love for the study, or because a phrenological examination should develop the fact, that the mathematical bump was rather below than above

the average. And yet, because Colleges do precisely in this respect what is done in the best schools in the land, we find men, otherwise well informed, declaring that the present college system does not meet the wants of the age.

Let it be remembered, that the principles of these objections, so far as they are based on any principles, legitimately carried out with respect to the other parts of our great school system, would utterly annihilate its highest excellencies. Every blow aimed at what is called the "compulsory" principle in our Colleges, is just as truly a blow at the system of Graded or Union Schools. They are parts of the same great and beautiful system, and are based on one and the same principle—perfect classification.

To remodel the College System by taking away the "compulsory" principle, i. e., the principle of complete classification, and permitting each student to make his own selection of studies, would be like giving up our Graded Schools and going back to the *single district* system. Yet such a plan has its advocates, who claim, withal, to be in the very van of the world's progressives. They say, a young man's tastes must be consulted—the studies must be adapted to his mental idiosyncrasy—or there will be no real discipline of the faculties; and, again, his proposed pursuit in life must determine his course of study. They do not tell us what is to be done, when his future occupation pulls him in one direction, and his mental idiosyncrasy in the opposite.

If an institution attempts to fit one young man to be a farmer, another to be a merchant, and so on, through all the multiplied avocations of society, its right to do so cannot be questioned: this is a free country. But just so far as it does this, it becomes a *professional* school, and withdraws itself from the work of *general* education. And yet, strangely enough, it is on this *professional* characteristic, that the claims of such institutions to public favor are based. The points of difference between them and other Colleges, are just those between them and the best Graded Schools. So far forth as they differ from other Colleges, they have no closer affinity for the general school system than the Starling Medical College.

The system of general education has then its completion in the College proper. The College is the continuation of the course commenced years before in the most elementary department. It sustains to the High School and Academy, exactly the relation that one of these does to the next before it in order of time. The whole forms a complete school system. The object of each department is the same as that of the others, and if any one fails perfectly to accomplish that work, it furnishes but another proof that imperfection attaches to all human works.

Let us now consider the influence which Schools and Colleges exert upon each other.

The influence of the School upon the College is direct and immediate. The road to the latter lies through the former. The college having always adhered to the principle of the division of labor, must receive its pupils from the school. According to the character of the

training to which they have there been subjected, will be, in no small measure, their future scholarship. If this early training has been imperfect, however faithfully the student may perform his collegiate duties, he cannot wholly free himself from the difficulties which have thus been brought upon him. On the other hand, when all this previous work has been properly performed, each branch having received its appropriate attention, and at the proper time, the student is prepared to reap all the advantages which a well-digested collegiate course is calculated to furnish.

The College is also dependent upon the School for the habits of study of its students. Before entering college the pupil has spent from six to twelve years in the different departments of the schools. In this long period, habits will have been formed which it will be difficult to change. If these are what they should be, the previous teachers will deserve no small share of the praise for the student's subsequent success; and so, if these habits are the opposite of what they should be, to the same previous teachers must be attributed a considerable portion of the blame of his final failure.

In both the particulars now mentioned, it will be seen that the influence of the previous schools upon the College, is just the same as that of the lower schools upon the High School. The amount of this influence is believed in both cases to be greatly underrated, and the tendency is too common to attribute all the imperfections of a young man's education to the institution, whether school or college, where his course was nominally finished; whereas, in truth, every school in which he has been enrolled, and every teacher who has attempted to give him instruction, has contributed to the final result.

A third particular may be mentioned, in which the influence of the school upon the college is too great to be overlooked. It is an influence not affecting the scholarship of the students, but their number. The question whether a lad shall receive a liberal education, is very frequently decided by the teacher of the school. This is done in different ways; sometimes by direct advice. A teacher who has imbibed a prejudice against collegiate institutions, learns that a bright lad among his pupils has a half-formed purpose of obtaining a liberal education. He endeavors to dissuade him—magnifies the difficulties to be encountered—tells him that such an education will do him no good, and that he will be better off without it. Or, without taking ground thus positively against a college education, he may, by doubt and insinuation, accomplish the end quite as effectually. The ingenuous boy has confidence in his teacher, and the noble purpose is nipped in the bud. A word of encouragement, on the other hand, would have cherished and strengthened the purpose, and in after years that instructor might perhaps have seen his former pupil taking his place among the magnates of the Republic, a dispenser of blessings to his country and the race.

The same ends are often accomplished without any direct effort on the part of the teacher. Is he incompetent, possessed of little knowledge himself, and poorly fitted to impart that little, how can he stir up the dormant energies of those entrusted to his care?—how

instil into their minds that thirst for knowledge, which constitutes one of the strongest guaranties for future improvement? He stands before his pupils a sort of personification of education, and no wonder they have no desire to go farther. Contrast with him the man of large and varied acquirements, of ripe and polished scholarship, and possessing, besides, that enthusiasm in his work, that power of enkindling in the breasts of his pupils a strong desire to know, which is second to no other qualification of the most successful teacher. Can genius long remain latent under such influences? As part after part of the rich domain of knowledge is explored with such a guide, will there not spring up an irrepressible desire to go farther—to make still wider explorations? The higher the culture, and the more varied and accurate the attainments of the teacher of the school, when associated, as they should always be, with intense enthusiasm, the greater will be the number to be seen urging their way onward from grade to grade, till they have possessed themselves of the highest advantages that our great educational system can offer.

But what is the influence of the College upon the School? Keeping in mind that the College is the highest department in the system of general education, it is manifest that, wherever correct views are entertained of our educational machinery as a whole, the College must act with magnetic force upon the pupils of the other departments. Prominent among the reasons urged for the establishment of High Schools in our towns and cities, is this—that the High School will exert a powerful influence upon the lower schools, by inciting their pupils to greater diligence and faithfulness in their studies.—The argument is equally applicable to the College.

Again, it is urged in favor of the establishment of High Schools and Academies, that they will furnish teachers. This argument, too, whose truthfulness will not be questioned, applies with equal pertinency to the College. The College benefits the School by training up and sending forth those that will become teachers. It seems hardly necessary to say, that I do not mean to affirm that the knowledge and intellectual discipline obtained in College, are all that the good teacher needs; and yet there are not a few who seem to think, that because the young graduate does not at once equal the teacher who has had the experience of half a score of years, therefore a College education is no help to a man who would become an instructor. It requires strong logic to show the connection here between premise and conclusion.

A College is not a Normal School, though it may have such a department. And it is no more to be blamed for not doing the work of a Normal School than is a High School. The province of each of them is, not to educate a young man as a teacher, any more, or any less, than as a merchant. Each has for its appropriate office the communication of knowledge and the development of the whole mind, and not that of initiating into the mysteries of teaching as a profession. This last is the province especially of the Normal School; and when such a school shall have been established in our State, let every candidate for admission into the corps of teachers, be



required to certify that he has been in attendance at that school, or some other, at least one term.

It requires a rare combination of excellencies to make a good teacher—a teacher of a school. It is hardly too much to say, that success—a high degree of success—is a more difficult attainment in this than in any other of the occupations of life. One of these excellencies, and certainly one of the first importance, is *knowledge*—knowledge of the subjects which our children must be taught. The more knowledge the teacher has the better, other things being equal; for it is a rare complaint against him, that he knows too much, or too well. The best teacher is never satisfied with his present attainments—he is always learning. The more he learned when a pupil, the higher is his starting point as a teacher. Now some things taught in College are certainly more immediately available to the teacher than others, but there is not one which it is not for his interest to know—there is not one which our best instructors, whose early opportunities were limited, are not studying for themselves, as they can snatch fragments of time from the pressure of their daily duties. Should it be said that it is better to pursue these studies thus than under instructors, then we may affirm the same of other branches lower down on the scale, till, in the end, we shall shut up every school house in the land.

The principle, that attainments in the higher studies qualify for the better understanding of the most elementary branches, is acted upon universally. The man who instructs the most advanced classes in the High School, is the Superintendent of the Primary Schools, the teachers of which instruct under his direction. So in the very center of educational progress, on the soil where good schools flourish best, such thoroughly educated men as Horace Mann, Barnas Sears and Henry Barnard, are appointed State Superintendents.

Once more: Colleges repay the Schools by scattering abroad through the community a class of men who are always found to be the warmest supporters of good schools. Liberally educated men, without exception, are anxious that their children should be well instructed. They are always foremost in employing well qualified instructors, and most ready to give them an adequate compensation. Their countenance and support may be depended upon when the teacher has to contend with the prejudices of the narrow-minded and ignorant. Their judicious suggestions for the improvement of his school, will always meet his approbation and encouragement. When our noble system of free schools is attacked by the demagogue under the plea of economy, the educated man will be found among its most earnest and successful defenders.

## REPORT

*Of the Committee of Public Schools, in South Kingstown,  
R. I., for the municipal year ending June, 1852.*

There are few duties which a town owes to itself and to the country, more important than the education of its youth. The proper development of their intellectual powers, the acquisition of knowledge, mental discipline, and moral culture on which the formation of character and future usefulness greatly depend, are entitled to the earnest attention and liberal provision of our citizens. For the cultivation of good manners, the establishment of virtuous habits, and the improvement of the social state we rely in a great measure on the proper training of youth in common schools. Whatever be the sphere of labor which they may occupy in future,—whether they engage in the honorable business of husbandry, or in mechanical and manufacturing employments, or in nautical and mercantile pursuits, a thorough acquaintance with the elementary branches of education will greatly facilitate their success, and their progress to respectability and honor. All classes of our youth should be qualified to fill with propriety and credit to themselves and the State, any post of duty which they may choose for themselves, or to which they may be called by their fellow citizens. The welfare and perpetuity of a republic like ours, demands this preparation of the rising generation.

It is highly gratifying to perceive, that the people of this town do appreciate more and more the value of education; and that there is among them an increasing carefulness to secure teachers who are fully competent to this great work. It is now generally understood and realized, that in school-teaching, as in mechanical operations, it is not good policy in any respect, to employ bunglers, who spoil the materials on which they work. It is perceived and generally felt, as we believe, that incompetent, leaden-minded teachers, whose literary attainments scarcely equal that of many of their pupils, occasion a waste of precious existence, and a waste of public money.

## VISITATION OF SCHOOLS.

At the time of our election to the highly responsible duties of a school committee, the town instructed the chairman to

perform the duties of superintendent of the schools by visiting them twice in the winter term, and voted a certain sum as a compensation for these services. In compliance with this specific instruction, he visited all the schools as near the commencement of the term as practicable, with the exception of one, (No. 11,) where at the time no teacher was engaged.—The second visitation was near the close of the schools, and was made to all the schools, excepting four, of which three were in remote parts of the town and closed sooner than the chairman expected. In addition to this, he visited most of the schools during the summer term. While prosecuting this labor he became more and more convinced of the importance and utility of it. The state of the schools, the manner of conducting the exercises, the discipline and progress of the pupils are in this manner well ascertained. It makes teachers feel more deeply their responsibility, and stimulates those under their instruction to greater diligence. Favorable opportunities are thus afforded for imparting counsel or giving hints to each as circumstances may require, and the chairman has acted accordingly.

The town has a territory equal to four towns of the ordinary size in New England, and has twenty-one districts and twenty-four schools. As the time of the required visitations occurred at the most unpleasant portions of the year, viz. : at the beginning and about the close of winter or early in the spring, when much of the weather and the roads are bad, it was impracticable to visit them all within a fortnight of their commencement and their close as the law recommends. For the convenience of performing these very desirable visitations, it would be well to have them all commence the winter term about the same time, for instance, in the first half of November.

## SCHOOL HOUSES.

While most of our school buildings are neat and commodious, there are a few which need to be remodelled and fitted with desks of the improved form; and two, (Nos. 4 and 5) are entirely too small for the number of scholars, which exceeds sixty in each.

Nearly all the school rooms are furnished with a handsome map of the State, and also one of the United States. Beside these, many have Mitchel's outline maps. Quite a number are supplied with clocks, and some with globes and thermometers. A few only are destitute of blackboards. And yet surprising as it may seem, but very few of our school houses have a shovel and tongs, or chairs for visitors, or even one for

the teacher. We recommend an immediate supply of these necessary articles of furniture.

Sufficient care has not been taken to have the yards and play grounds made dry with flagging or gravel. The health of children requires that they should have active exercise at frequent intervals, and this they cannot have comfortably and safely, where the grounds appropriated for this purpose are wet and muddy, as is so often the case in our climate, where most of our winter storms are of rain, and where the snow melts away soon after it has fallen. Probably, much of the indisposition which keeps children from school, and endangers life, might be traced to sitting with wet feet away from a fire.

Scarcely any of the school houses are furnished with wood sheds, or any means of protecting wood from storms. This occasions much waste of fuel, as much more must be used to produce the necessary warmth if it be wet or green, than would be necessary, if it were dry. Public and private experiment has abundantly proved, that dry fuel is far the most economical, and certainly, is much to be preferred as it respects convenience and comfort.

A neat and well constructed school-house has been erected within the few months past in the Pier district, No. 19. This accommodation has long been needed there, and we congratulate the people in the success of their commendable efforts. We doubt not that this school will not only sustain its good reputation, but take a high position and reflect honor upon the town. Each of the twenty-one districts has now a school house, though in a few instances it is the property of individuals.

## STATE OF THE SCHOOLS.

On this point your committee can speak with much pleasure. Generally the schools have been conducted by competent, energetic, and faithful teachers. As might be expected they have been well regulated, and have made commendable progress. The chairman of the committee has been particular to mark the order and progress of the scholars by taking short memoranda of recitations and readings. He has not set as a mere spectator of school exercises, but has asked questions on the several branches of study which would test the thoroughness and accuracy with which the studies have been prosecuted. His last course of visitation has been conducted strictly as an examination. This has brought out the ability and tact of the teacher in imparting instruction.— Without instituting an invidious comparison of one school with another, we may say, that in many of them there were



classes in geography, grammar, arithmetic, and algebra, and some in history, geometry, and in one instance, physiology, which would have done credit to schools of a higher grade.

By employing well qualified teachers, who are acquainted with the more recent and improved methods of instruction, we obtain another important result, viz.: the preparation of teachers among ourselves, with whose characters and qualifications we are personally acquainted. There is far less hazard in employing such, than in employing those who come from other towns and States, perhaps without credentials, concerning whom, of course, we can know but little.

Here we would state, that the experiment has fully proved the competency of well educated females for the most successful performance of the duties of teachers. We have found them as well, if not better informed on all the branches of study in our schools than males; and their readiness in adapting themselves to the condition, feelings, and capacities of children, enables them to exert a happy influence over them. If any large boys are so destitute of manly and generous feelings, as to take advantage of the physical weakness of a female teacher by showing insubordination and practicing irregularities, the remedy is in the hands of the committee and can be promptly applied. As a general thing, and especially for summer schools, we recommend the employment of females.

It is important to reiterate what was said in our report last year in regard to the engagement of teachers, who have not received certificates, or whose abilities have not been practically tested to the satisfaction of their employers. It sometimes occurs, that we feel compelled to give certificates to those whose qualifications are not satisfactory, because they have engaged schools and have actually commenced them. We hope, however, that our successors in office will examine candidates still more thoroughly than we have done; and give no certificates of approbation to any one *under any circumstances*, whom they do not find to possess an accurate knowledge of the branches usually taught in common schools.— Trustees should not engage those who have not certificates *from the committee of this town*, only on the condition of their obtaining them. We are thus particular because we have found those who have received certificates elsewhere, who, at any rate, were not qualified to teach school in *this town*.

## ATTENDANCE.

The chairman has examined the Record Book of each school, in which is recorded the daily attendance or absence of the pupils ; and has usually made remarks commendatory or reprehensive as the state of the case made proper and necessary. We fear that all parents do not feel the importance of the regular attendance of their children both as it respects themselves and the school. In certain studies, arithmetic for instance, explanations and illustrations which have been given in the regular course, must be repeated to those who were absent, which takes up the time and increases the labor of the teacher, or else the absentees must go on limping and embarrassed through the subsequent lessons. The effect of this often is to dishearten them,—to produce in them a dislike to study and to the school, and finally to complain to their parents that they are tasked too severely, and cannot understand what their more constant fellows understand, perhaps with little difficulty. Here, then, is an injury more or less serious, inflicted on all concerned.

A still deeper injury is inflicted when the parent, from some representation of the child, which is not always strictly accordant with truth, withdraws him from the school, depriving him thereby of a valuable opportunity of obtaining knowledge which he needs ; and confirms him, perhaps, in habits of rudeness, insubordination, and mental indolence ; and passes a censure upon the teacher and the school, without a justifiable cause. Little do such parents consider what a deleterious, and it may be fatal influence they are exerting upon their children by such a course of conduct.

Instead of this, there should be a hearty co-operation on their part to second the effort of the teacher for the moral and intellectual improvement of their children by inculcating upon them strict obedience to the regulations of the school, and a diligent attention to the prescribed exercises. They should feel it their duty also to co-operate with the State in its wise and beneficent design to furnish the means of education to all its youth. If parents take their children from school because of minor defects in teachers, or for some offence taken with the proceedings of districts or their officers, thousands of children in the State will be deprived every year of that instruction which the public has provided for them, and the loss to them will be irreparable. In our judgment children should not be withdrawn and withheld from school unless for very weighty reasons,—reasons, which, if they relate to teachers, are sufficient to occasion their dismissal from their official stations.—Parents are bound by the welfare of their children and by

their obligations to the State to co-operate with teachers and with the State in giving the best success to the means of education, and in securing the full enjoyment of these means to all for whom they are intended.

It has not, perhaps, been sufficiently considered, how much the success of schools depends on the training which children receive at home. The great business of education commences in the family circle. There, principles, good or bad, are inculcated, and habits are formed at a very early period. There, the feelings acquire their moral tone; and there, conscience obtains its first apprehensions of right and wrong. Now, if parents neglect the duties which God and nature enjoin upon them; if they do not make their children obedient to their authority; if they indulge their natural waywardness, and allow them to do much as they please; if they do not form their conscience to a quick perception of moral rectitude and obliquity, a difficult task is imposed on the school teacher, whose authority is only conventional and limited. He will be perplexed and harassed by the improprieties of such neglected children; his energies will be severely tasked, and his time occupied in correcting what ought to have been corrected and prevented at home. His attention will be continually withdrawn from his appropriate business of imparting instruction to other members of the school; and thus, from day to day, the orderly, docile pupils are compelled to be losers. It is a great wrong done to the community; it is a species of fraudulence, when parents do not restrain, instruct, and discipline their children as they ought. To expect that school teachers will remedy all the irregularities and improprieties of children badly trained under the paternal roof, is entirely unreasonable. It is imposing on them quite too hard a task, to make them the formers of amiable and respectful manners and good morals in those who, are not taught these, or are under counter-acting influences at home. We would, therefore, impress the minds of all parents with the duty of co-operating with the educators of their children, and with the State in endeavors to enlighten the minds, to refine the manners, and to cultivate purity of morals in the young. It is scarcely possible to devote too much attention to this important matter.

## RESPECT FOR TEACHERS.

The influence of a teacher depends greatly on his having the confidence and affection of his pupils. To secure these, he must possess the necessary qualities. He should be a person of good manners, and correct in his language. He should possess kind feelings, and always manifest a benevolent regard

for the best good of those who are under his care. He should be a person of quick perception and energy, that he may infuse life and spirit into them, and keep them from a dull and sleepy monotony. He should be qualified by literary attainments and by readiness of communication to impart all the information which his pupils require, and much more than they ask for. He should be so thoroughly acquainted with all the studies which are or should be pursued in his school, that he can give all needed explanations and illustrations. All this is necessary to secure the respect and affection of his pupils.

Then, as another thing quite indispensable, parents must show a proper esteem for him; must be careful not to speak disparagingly of him in the presence of their children, nor in any way give them the impression that they think he is not discharging his duties in a proper manner. If they wish their children to receive the greatest benefit from his labors, they must be careful of his reputation, and co-operate with him in maintaining good discipline, order, and attention.

In regard to the internal arrangements and exercises of the school, the teacher must have the entire control, except so far as relates to the legal supervision of the committee or superintendent. The responsibility of conducting the exercises and maintaining the order of the school rests upon the teacher, and there should be no interference from any quarter, except for important reasons. The want of this mutual confidence and affection always produces disastrous results.



LOCAL NAME.	Valuation of taxable property.	Amount expended for all purposes for School.	No. of scholars registered, belonging to District.	Boys.	Girls.	From other Districts	Over 10 years of age	Length of School in months.	No. who attend 3 4th of the term and more	Number who attend one-half.	Average daily attendance.	Teachers' wages per month, including board.	Teachers' wages, exclusive of board.
1. Ferry,	130,000	112 66	39	25 14	25 14	3	2 1 2	3	26	31	27	17 30	17 00
2. Tower Hill,	110,000		45	30 15	30 15	3	8 4	8	20	32	29	33	Mr. Peaselec.
3. Kingston,	138,350		88	41 47	41 47	13	17 4	17	53	20	66	20	Miss Meriam.
4. Union,*	40,000		69	38 31	38 31	15	4 4	4	45	15	50	30	19 50
5. Rocky Brook,	100,000	180 00	67	40 27	40 27	7	4 4	4	45	56	50	30	
6. Wakefield,			49	24 25	24 25	4	4	4	21	20	36	40	20 00
Primary.			63	40 23	40 23	4	15 4	15	28	44	38	40	
Grammar;	157,000	145 78	38	20 18	20 18	1	4 7 1 2	4	8	13	17		18 00
7. Point Judith,	70,000	121 00	21	12 9	12 9	1	2 4	2	16	21	18		16 50
8. do.	66,100						1 3 1 2	1	20	7	30	14	14 00
9. Sugar Loaf Hill,	52,000	85 00	30	12 18	12 18	2	6 4	6	19	21	16	14	15 00
10.	66,000		18	9 9	9 9	2	2 1 2	2	8	16	13		20 00
11. Perryville,	50,000	97 00	42	19 23	19 23	3	4 3 2 3	4	20	32	30		
12. Green Hill,		88 00	20	11 9	11 9		6 4	6	13	13	12	20	16 00
13. Tuckertown,			18	11 7	11 7	2	2 4 1 2	2	14	1	14	18	
14. Perkins,	35 000		24	13 11	13 11	6	3	3	18	6	20	18	20 00
15. Yawcoo,	48,942		28	13 15	13 15	2	8 3 1 2	8	27	27	21	15	
16. Usquepaug,	15,000	75 85	18	10 8	10 8	1	1 2 1 2	1	13	14	13	15	20 00
17. Dugway,	69,000		33	20 13	20 13	3	4 4	4	24	30	26	24	
18. Pier,	97,000	352 50	73	55 18	55 18		5 4	5	48	50	48	30	14 00
19. Peacedale,			33	19 14	19 14		5 3	5	24	30	25		
20. Moorsfield,													
21. Commonly called Rodman's Corner.													

\* Commonly called Rodman's Corner.

The foregoing table is defective, because the returns from some of the districts have not been filled out by the trustees. This we regret, because we wish to spread before our fellow-citizens a full account of our educational interests and operations.

This table is formed from the reports of the winter schools only, with the exception of the two columns respecting rateable property and expenditures. Quite a number of the schools in summer have been supported partly, or wholly, by money raised within their several districts.

In giving the average daily attendance, the fractional parts, as reported by the teacher, have been omitted.

It should be understood, also, that these returns do not give the whole number of scholars who have attended school in the course of the year; for, in every district, some attend in summer who do not attend in winter. The chairman has endeavored to ascertain the number of those who have attended only in summer, so that the next apportionment of money may be made according to the exact number of scholars. At his request, a portion of the district returns have given the information required. And he requests now, that the trustees who have not done this, will examine the record of their several schools, and thus ascertain how many scholars attended school last summer, who did not attend last winter, and send the result to him. By doing this, they will receive a larger sum from the treasury of the town.

The whole number of scholars in the town, who have attended school more or less, the present year, is not far from one thousand.

It will be seen by the table, that a large portion of the scholars did not continue in the school over one-half of the last winter term. Of course, the amount of benefit they received must have been very small. We should be unwilling to impute this great deficiency—this renunciation of the opportunities and advantages of education, to the indifference of parents to the subject. There is an evil here, which calls for a remedy. And we hope, that the returns of another year will exhibit a far more regular and prolonged attendance at school, and thus show a high appreciation of the many advantages of a thorough common school education.

Table showing the number of scholars who have attended to branches of studies specified.

Districts.	No. of scholars in alphabet.	Do. in reading and spelling.	Do. in geography.	Do. in grammar.	Do. in mental arithmetic.	Do. in written arithmetic.	Do. in penmanship.	Do. in algebra.	Do. in geometry.	Do. in philosophy and physiology.	Do. in composition.	
1	1	33	8	2	10	13	28					
2		45	9	4	5	14	33	3				
3	4	78	33	28	58	48	62	11		12	45	
4	3	51	24	11	18	38	50	3			9	
5	8	43	26	5	17	13	34					
6	5	39	21	0	26	16	27				27	Primary.
	0	48	30	35	48	46	48	10	1		30	Grammar.
7	6	25	8	6	8	22	27	2			10	
8	4	16	6	6	8	6	10					
9	2	32	16	9	30	16	24				20	
10	4	15	12	2	6	15	17	1		1	7	
11	4	13	4	0	2	6	5					
12	0	40	17	7	16	21	25			4	13	
13												
14	2	15	9	2	12	2	14			2		
15	0	16	11	4	10	9	15					
16	2	15	5	3	10	12	17					
17	0	25	11	6	13	11	21	1				
18	2	5	2	2	1	4	5	1				
19	0	36	20	3	26	23	29				30	
20	5	50	24	10	12	24	43					
21	2	28	2	2	2	15	23					

Beside the branches specified above, others have been attended to in some of the schools, viz.:

Drawing of maps, history, analysis of language, definitions, book keeping, drawing, and vocal music. We are much pleased to find, that in two or three schools, a few of the older scholars have given attention to the study of physiology. All classes of persons need to know more of the house they live in, and to understand better how to keep it in good condition.

Table showing the apportionment of money for the year ending June, 1852.

Districts.	Average Attendance	Division by District.	Division by Attendance	Balance in Treasury.	Total.	Received per order.
1	24 1-2	60 25	18 37	10 32	88 94	88 47
2	32	60 25	24 00		84 25	84 25
3	57 5-6	60 25	43 37		103 62	103 62
4	52	60 25	39 00	44 91	144 16	123 00
5	45	60 25	33 75		94 00	94 00
6	71	60 25	53 25		113 50	113 50
7	21	60 25	15 75	4 75	80 75	80 75
8	15 5-8	60 25	11 71	20 00	91 96	91 96
9	35	60 25	26 25		86 50	81 20
10	16	60 25	12 00	23 92	96 17	96 17
11	19 3-4	60 25	14 81	33	75 39	75 00
12	35	60 25	26 25	10 89	97 39	97 00
13	23	60 25	17 25	10 00	87 50	80 37
14	17 1-3	60 25	13 00	29 86	103 11	88 00
15	14	60 25	10 50	30 30	101 05	101 05
16	15	60 25	11 25	41 31	112 81	94 00
17	22	60 25	16 50		76 75	76 75
18	15	60 25	11 25		71 50	71 00
19	37	60 25	27 75		88 00	88 00
20	47 6-17	60 25	35 50		95 75	95 75
21	27	60 25	20 25	17	80 67	88 00
					1,973 77	

We have now in our possession the means of giving to all our youth a good common school education. By a diligent and careful use of these means, our youth may be prepared for usefulness and respectability in those spheres of labor to which the providence of God may call them.

It should not be overlooked, that the acquisition of knowledge is only one branch of education. Physical education, or that which relates to our bodily organization and the preservation of health, is another part, which should receive constant attention from all who are conversant in the management of youth.

Another part of education, and the most important of all, is moral training. It should be ever borne in mind, that we are immortal beings; and that we have a moral nature to be cultivated and fitted for a higher, nobler state of existence. This world is God's great school, and we all are learners in it.—Our lessons are prescribed by himself in his own inspired book, and in those providential events, which belong to the administration of his government. The great principles of truth, virtue and piety, which he has taught us, should be diligently inculcated, and thoroughly wrought into the minds of all our youth, at home, and in the school room. They



should be taught to regulate their passions—to maintain self-government—and to cherish kind, amiable, and benevolent affections.

If this be faithfully done, we may see a generation enter upon the great theatre of human action, prepared to do honor to the State, under whose auspices they have been reared ; and to live so as to “grow in favor both with God and man.”

JOEL MANN,  
Chairman of the School Committee.

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### CONSTRUCTION OF THE SCHOOL LAW.

The following decision of the Supreme Court, made May 10th, 1852, relates to the case which we have reported in our April number, page 219. It will be seen on examination that it only affects the mode of carrying into effect the decision of the Commissioner of Public Schools in a case appealed to him :

SUPREME COURT, MONDAY, MAY 10.

Mowry Randall and another vs. Zelotes Wetherell, Town Treasurer, of North Providence.

Application for a mandamus. The application stated that the applicants, Trustees of School District No. 3, of North Providence, “did on            day of            A. D., 1851, employ one Anson H. Cole, as a teacher in said district, and that on the 8th of January, 1852, there was justly due to said Cole, as teacher, the sum of \$48 12. That said Trustees also employed one Hannah T. Smith, as a teacher in said district, and on the 23d of January, 1852, there was justly due to said Hannah, the sum of \$18. That these bills were duly presented to the School Committee of said town for payment, but said Committee, January 24th, 1852, by vote refused to allow said bills, as they were by law bound to do, pretending that they were not due, and that the district was under no legal obligation to pay the same.”

From this vote of the Committee an appeal was taken to the Commissioner of Public Schools, who decided that the bills should be paid and drew an order on the Town Treasurer to pay out of any money in his office, standing to the credit of said district, or out of any school money in his office, said sums to Anson H. Cole and Hannah T. Smith. This order the Town Treasurer refused to comply with.

A rule having been granted for the said Zelotes Wetherell to appear and show cause why said sums of money have not been paid, and why he should not be commanded by the Court to pay the same.

Rivers for the petitioners cited sections 21st, 23d and 65th, of "an act to revise and amend the laws regulating Public Schools," and admitted that the statute gave the Commissioner no direct authority to draw this order, but that the act having given an appeal from the Town Committee, who were competent to draw the order, the appeal to the Commissioner carried with it by implication the incidental power to draw the order of payment.

The Court having intimated that the proper mode of proceeding would have been for the Commissioner to have certified their decision back to the Town Committee, and that upon their refusal to draw an order for the payment of the sums decided to be due, a mandamus might issue to compel them so to do. The further hearing of the case was postponed, that the Court might ascertain the views which guided the School Commissioner in his proceedings. The case was heard Saturday, May 8th; and now, the Court having conferred with the School Commissioner, their judgment was delivered by Greene, C. J., (after stating the case.) The difficulty which the Court experiences in this case, results from the 21st section of "The Act to revise and amend the law regulating Public Schools," which defines the duties of the Town Committee.—This section provides that the Town Committee shall draw orders upon the Town Treasurer for the payment of money due, in conformity with the law; *Provided*, "that the Committee shall not be obliged to give any order until they are satisfied the services have actually been performed for which the money is to be paid." They are to decide when money is due, and, having so decided, to draw an order for its payment. And the 23d section of the same act prescribes, that "The Town Treasurer shall receive the money due from the State Treasury, and shall keep a separate account of all money appropriated by the State, or town, or otherwise, for Public Schools, and *shall pay the same to the order of the School Committee.*" These two sections are exceedingly significant. The first prescribes who shall draw the orders, and the other what orders the Town Treasurer shall be bound to pay. The 65th section of the School Act gives an appeal from the decisions of the School Committee to the Commissioner, whose decision is to be final. But the Commissioner, by this section, has only authority to affirm or reverse the decisions of the Town Committee, but has no authority to draw orders; and

any orders drawn by him, are not obligatory upon the Town Treasurer. We think the proper course for him is to adjudicate upon the appeal, and certify his decision to the Town Committee, requesting them to draw the order required, and, if they refuse, a mandamus may be granted to compel them to draw the order. Weeden for defendant.

## NOTICES OF BOOKS.

### COLBURN'S DECIMAL SYSTEM OF NUMBERS :

A new work, by a gentleman well known to our teachers, by his valuable lectures at our Institutes. B. B. Mussey & Co.

### THE YOUNG LADIES' ELOCUTIONARY READER :

INTRODUCTION TO " " By Wm. and Anna U. Russell.

Selections of pieces for reading, with instructions especially adapted to female voices. James Munroe & Co.

### A SELECTION OF ENGLISH SYNONYMS :

EASY LESSONS IN REASONING. 3d American edition.

Two works, the former revised, and the latter written by Doctor Whately, the distinguished Archbishop of Dublin, author of the works on Logic and Rhetoric. James Munroe & Co.

### ELEMENTS OF INTELLECTUAL PHILOSOPHY, by Hubbard Winslow.

There are few works on the philosophy of the mind at present adapted to schools. The present appears to be an excellent manual and of convenient size for that purpose.

### OUTLINES OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, by John Q. Day.

The study of Physical Geography should be introduced in our schools. Teachers themselves should be acquainted with it. James Munroe & Co.

AN INTRODUCTION TO GEOGRAPHY AND THE SCIENCE OF FORM : prepared from the most approved Prussian text-books. Prepared at the suggestion of Mr. Page, of the Albany Normal School, and recommended by Professor B. Pierce. Boston : J. Munroe & Co.

### THE MEMORY OF WASHINGTON ; with Biographical Sketches of his Mother and Wife. By N. Hervey. pp. 320.

An interesting collection of anecdotes and incidents in the life of General Washington. We wish that some publishing house would prepare a cheap edition of the Farewell Address, for schools. Boston : J. Munroe & Co.

### PARLEY'S FIRST BOOK OF HISTORY :

A new and revised edition of an old work, combining History with Geography, and with maps. Jencks, Hickling & Swan.

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, for Schools. By Chas. A. Goodrich. Thoroughly revised. Boston : Jencks, Hickling & Swan.

FIRST BOOK OF ETYMOLOGY. By Joseph Thomas, M. D. A revised edition of the work of Lynd. Highly recommended. Philadelphia : E. C. & J. Biddle.

WORCESTER'S PRIMARY DICTIONARY. A good book for schools and a convenient pocket or travelling manual for pronunciation. Jencks, Hickling & Swan.

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☞ THE RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE will be published monthly. All pamphlets, exchange papers, or communications, should be addressed to E. R. POTTER, Providence, R. I. Letters (post paid) may be directed to Providence or Kingston. Terms, 50 cents per annum, in advance.



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. 1.

PROVIDENCE, JULY, 1852.

NO. 7.

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*From the Providence Journal.*

## TEACHERS' INSTITUTE, AT BRISTOL.

A Teachers' Institute, of uncommon profit, was commenced at Bristol on Monday evening, last week, and continued until Saturday noon. The meeting was called to order by Rev. Mr. Shepherd, of Bristol, and opened with prayer by Rev. Mr. Stone, of this city.—Hon. E. R. Potter, State School Commissioner, then delivered an interesting address on the uses of Teachers' Institutes, replete with important suggestions to teachers and parents, and marked by broad and just views. It was listened to with undivided attention by a full audience.

On Tuesday morning, Prof. Jaeger, of this city, commenced a course of lectures on Natural History, delivering three each day.—In his opening discourses he considered the importance of the study to the professional man, as well as to commerce, manufactures, the mechanic arts, agriculture and horticulture. He spoke of the methods in which the science should be taught in our common schools, high schools and colleges. He made honorable mention of Prof. Harris, Torrey, Gray, Agassiz, and other eminent naturalists in this country, and concluded with some appropriate and impressive remarks on the moral and religious value of this study. He showed that the harmonies of our sacred Scriptures with Nature are perfect, and that as the pupil is taught to listen to the voices of the "fowls of the air,"

and to read the beautiful lessons of the "lilies of the field," the most elevated and reverential ideas of God, and a living faith, will be awakened in him.

This course was more complete than any previous one Prof Jaeger has had opportunity to deliver before our Institutes, and produced the liveliest interest. In copiousness of illustration and the statement of valuable facts drawn from personal observation and experiment, he is unsurpassed, and few instructors are so successful in winning the attention and exciting the enthusiasm of classes in this important and delightful department of science.

Rev. Joel Mann, of South Kingstown, delivered an able lecture on Emulation in Schools, which was followed by an animated and profitable discussion.

Rev. Dr. Hall, of this city, gave an admirable lecture on the exercise of Thought, which received the unqualified commendation of the audience.

Prof. Russell gave a brief course of lectures on Elocution, and as usual delighted his hearers.

Several very valuable and interesting lectures on the analysis of language and the methods of improving the quality of education in this State, were also delivered by Prof. Greene, Superintendent of our public schools. It is not often that so much important instruction and so many useful hints are crowded into so limited space, and we are quite sure that the teachers present will return to their vocation with clearer perceptions of the essentials to success.

The weather during the week was exceedingly warm, yet did not prevent a good and uniform attendance.

At the close of the Institute on Saturday, remarks were made by Rev. Messrs. Shepherd and Stone. The following resolutions were likewise offered by Mr. Cook, in behalf of the teachers from abroad, which were unanimously adopted :

1. *Resolved*, That we tender our grateful acknowledgments to Rev. Mr. Shepherd, to Mr. Munro, Superintendent of Schools in Bristol to the teachers of the schools in Bristol, and to the citizens generally, for the generous hospitality with which we have been entertained, and for their unwearied endeavors to promote our comfort and happiness, during our attendance on this Institute.

2. *Resolved*, That our thanks are due to Hon. E. R. Potter,

State School Commissioner, for his successful endeavors in securing for our improvement as teachers, the courses of instruction we have enjoyed.

3. *Resolved*, That we are under deep obligations to Rev. Joel Mann, Rev. Dr. Hall, and Profs. Russell and Greene, for the valuable lectures with which they have favored us on this occasion.

4. *Resolved*, That we appreciate the importance of the study of Natural History, in its relations to the moral improvement and the mental refinement of the young, as presented and illustrated by Prof. Jaeger in the interesting and instructive course of lectures delivered by him, during the sessions of this Institute, and that we tender him our warmest thanks for his valuable services in the cause of popular education.

5. *Resolved*, That these resolutions be printed in the paper of this town, and in Mr. Potter's Educational Magazine.

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*From the Providence Daily Post.*

### TEACHERS' INSTITUTE.

A Teachers' Institute was held at Bristol, last week, under the direction of Hon. E. R. Potter, which, in many respects, surpassed the profitable meeting held at East Greenwich some weeks ago. Interesting and valuable lectures were delivered by the State Commissioner, on the uses of Institutes; by Rev. Joel Mann, on Emulation in Schools; by Rev. Dr. Hall, on Thinking; by Professor Russell, on Elocution; on the Analysis of Language, and on the best method of improving the quality of instruction in our Schools, by Professor Greene; and on Natural History, by Professor Jaeger. All the lectures were well received. Those of Professor Jaeger, sixteen in number, were peculiarly interesting and instructive, and were rendered still more attractive by sets of fine Zoological and Botanical plates, and a beautiful miniature cabinet of insects with which he illustrated them. The profound learning of Professor J. and the vast fund of information he imparts, drawn from his extensive travels and close observation of nature, impart a charm to the science that none who listen to him can resist. We think it a fortunate circumstance that the services of a gentleman of such rare attainments has been secured to most of the Institutes that have been held in this State for two years past. The practical uses to which he applies this science, and the moral lessons he constantly draws from it, awakens a regret in the mind of the listener, that the subject has been so exten-

sively neglected. The sauvity of the Professor, and his agreeable method of imparting instruction, make him a universal favorite with teachers. At Bristol, as at Portsmouth, last autumn, a strong enthusiasm was excited by him. We owe many thanks to the State Commissioner for introducing to the acquaintance of Rhode Island teachers, a gentleman who has done so much to create a taste for this useful and refining study, and we are glad to learn that his Class Book of Zoology, the best of the kind we have ever seen, has been adopted in many of our best schools and academies. Prof. J. is now, we understand, a permanent resident among us, and we should be glad to see our High School enjoying the benefit of his lectures.

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Names of Teachers attending the Institute in Bristol, R. I., June, 1852.

## GENTLEMEN.

James A. Collins, Cranston,  
Z. A. Cooke, Centredale,  
N. B. Cooke, Bristol,  
I. F. Cady, Warren,  
D. S. Gushee, Bristol,  
William Hunt, Johnston,  
A. A. Meader, Wickford,

Thos. J. Manton, N. Providence,  
J. C. Rich, Bristol,  
E. Rich, Jr., Warren,  
P. W. Read, "  
John B. Tollman, Pawtucket,  
A. Judson Ward, Middletown.

## LADIES.

A. Frances Alden, Gwinett co. Ga  
E. L. Adams, Bristol,  
M. A. Bradford, "  
M. A. Bennett, "  
P. R. Bradford, Warren,  
Mary A. Bourn, Bristol,  
Elizabeth G. Cornell, Warren,  
Catharine M. Collins, Cranston,  
L. F. Deane, New Bedford,  
H. H. Easterbrooks, Bristol,  
Hannah Greene, Old Warwick,  
Mrs. Gulliver, Pawtucket,  
Ann E. Humphreys, Barrington,  
Caroline F. Martin, Pawtucket,

Harriet E. Norris, Bristol,  
Sarah M. Newton, Warren,  
Margaret Patten, "  
P. A. Richmond, Bristol,  
Mary W. Shepard, "  
Abby W. Shepard, "  
Susan H. Tiffany, Barrington,  
Mary Viall "  
Elizabeth J. Smith, Warren,  
M. A. Wardwell, Bristol,  
E. M. Wardwell, "  
M. D. Wyatt, "  
Mary L. Welch, Warren,  
Mary Westall, Cranston.

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*From the Christian Inquirer.*

## MAN AND CIRCUMSTANCE.

It is sometimes maintained that circumstances make the man; that the character of the individual, and consequently the destiny of the individual, is the product of influences which have acted upon him from his birth, and before his birth; that



he is what those influences have made him, and can be no other; the creature of circumstances in all his developments and all his experiences. Others incline to the opposite view. They contend that man is the maker of himself; that his true character is the "educated will;" that circumstances are plastic, and take what form of blight or blessing we choose to give them, and render what service or disservice we please to extract from them.

There is truth in both these views, contradictory as they seem. It depends on our point of sight and our way of looking, which of the two shall seem to us on the whole the truest. If we view man historically, if we look at society in the gross, and trace its successive phases from age to age, we shall be apt to conclude, that man is the product of circumstances. Or we may look at him individually and come to that conclusion, if we view him socially, as related to the world around him, rather than psychologically, as related to the world within. On the other hand, if we look to the moral in man, if we regard him as a moral nature, if we consult our own consciousness and the consciousness of others, we shall have to acknowledge that man possesses a power over himself which is stronger than circumstances, and that of all the agencies which make him what he is, his own individuality is the most effective. Both views are true, but not the whole truth. They must be united in one judgment to make the truth complete.

1. There is truth in the view that circumstances make the man. How else shall we account for the differences which characterize humanity in different ages and climes? Look at the phenomenon of race. See how differently human nature manifests itself in the Caucasian, the Tartar, the Malay, and the African. Yet all these partake of one nature. The fundamental properties of each are shared by all. Why is it that only one of these races has made any considerable progress in civilization, while in the others, society has remained stationary for thousands of years? Why is it that the highest culture has been attained by vast numbers of the one, and by scarcely a solitary individual in the rest? Why have not the Negro and the Malay attained the same eminence and made equal progress in art and science with the European? Why but because the circumstances of *race*, the physical, intellectual, and social qualities and tendencies which distinguish one race from another, have been more powerful in the mass, than genius or will? Why is it that the aborigines who inhabited this continent for unknown ages prior to the settlement of it by Europeans, have left scarcely a vestige of their existence on the soil? It was a wilderness in their hands, and

would have remained a wilderness forever. See what a different aspect the country assumes since the white man took possession of it ! Here are the same rivers, the same lakes and harbors, the same soil which the Indian knew and named.— See what has been made of these means by a different race ! These rivers, which once rolled idly to the main, have been made to drive the busy wheel, and to bear the wealth of the inland to the distant seaboard ; these harbors are converted into floating forests ; these lakes are made the highways of traffic ; this soil has disclosed mineral treasures more precious than gold. Here all the circumstances are the same but the single circumstance of race. But in that one circumstance of the race, how many forces, qualities, influences, are included !

Then look at the influence of climate and locality on the intellectual and moral nature. Genius, the highest power and the highest wisdom, have their geographical limits ; they are found in some latitudes, and are not found in others. A narrow strip of earth's surface, not exceeding forty degrees of north latitude, includes all the great men that have appeared in the world's history. And among nations lying within these latitudes, belonging to the same auspicious race, what differences, what inequalities, according as government or religion, topographical features or ancestral example, a little more heat or a little more cold, have moulded the mind and cast the lot ! How unlike the New Englander and the Turk ; how different the European of the north and the European of the south ; and how generally the character and condition of either of these regions is determined by historic and climatic peculiarities !

But the power of circumstance is best seen when we pass from races and nations to the individuals ; when we consider the influence on the individual of family, of early training, and of physical organization. The influence of family ! How inevitably it acts on the child at that plastic period when the soul is sensible to every impression, and when every thing that comes into contact with it makes its mark ! Who will predict for the child of the ignorant and the dissolute the same destiny which he predicts for the child of the virtuous and intelligent ! Or who will predict for the child of the pauper the same destiny which he predicts for the child of the affluent ? A more powerful agent still is physical organization. Who can say how deeply that agency enters into the life of the soul ; how a peculiar conformation of the body may color and mould the man ? Other influences, unknown and incalculable, come in for their share in the formation of every character, and the casting of every lot. Every circumstance and accident to

which human nature is subject, will have its influence ; how great, or how little, none can say ; but some influence it will have, for good or for evil. The child that is born this day has been foreshaped in part by influences, which have acted before his birth, and is destined to be still further shaped and kneaded by all the agencies that fall within his sphere. Could we know the influences that will act upon him for the first ten years of his life, we might predict what manner of man he shall be.

2. Turn we now to the opposite view. Allowing all that has been said of the power of circumstance in moulding the character and destiny, it is nevertheless true that there is in every individual an agency more powerful than circumstance, and more influential in the life of the man. We must not confound the historical or phenomenal man with the real and spiritual. It is true that race, country, custom, law, give their complexion to the outward man. And by the outward man we mean not only the person, but the man in action, the man of society. But the inward, spiritual man is independent of these. It is true that the highest culture is attainable only under certain conditions, but it is also true that this culture is only the coating, not the man. This does not diminish the importance of external influences, and the efforts made by individuals and society, in the way of legislation and education, to direct those influences. But let it be understood that they affect only the social man ; man's character and fortune as a member of society, and not his innermost condition as a spirit. The apparent condition of man is the product of circumstances, of society ; the inner condition never. That is the product of his individuality, of the deep interior self which the world knows not, which, it may be, he himself knows not and can never fully comprehend, but which constitutes the life of his life, his earliest past, his immediate present, his future extending through ceaseless time. The character which the world sees and judges is not this self ; it may be very different. But this self is the true character unfolding itself forever out of the unfathomable heart. This self is the true destiny, involving the real fortunes of the soul. Allowing then to circumstance and external conditions all that can be justly claimed for them, there is yet, we maintain, in the bosom of every man a force mightier than all these ; and no power which is brought to bear upon him from without can ever countervail his proper self. If on that side which he presents to the world he is made up of innumerable influences, on the inner side he is an individual still. There is more of his own in him than of all other men. We are something more than circumstance has made us, whether better or worse. And whatever circum-



stance has made us, and not we ourselves, we shall in time outgrow. The innermost heart of us these circumstances leave unchanged. Whatever experiences may come to us from abroad, whatever revolutions of outward condition we may pass through, no change of sphere or change of body, nor life nor death, nor heaven nor hell, can destroy the man within, or obliterate the original self from the soul. Whatever the influences which time or eternity may bring, overwhelming though they be, the individual character, as shaped from within, is mightier than all these, will survive them all, will subdue them to itself, as the stream in winter melts the snow into itself, as the flame transforms the fuel into itself, and will still maintain forever and ever its proper type.

Every man's self is his true world and his best state, an estate of unknown extent and inexhaustible riches. In giving us our self, God has given us the uttermost that divine power could bestow, an infinite possibility, in which all riches and all worlds for us are comprised. Go where we will in the far future, we can never outravel the limits of this possession.—Come what may in the long future, we can receive nothing so precious from any other source, we can experience nothing so hurtful from any other source as we may find within.

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### THE TALLEST IN THE WORLD.

Our national spirit of boasting shows itself so often, sometimes so offensively, and sometimes so ludicrously, that it is really quite a duty now and then to give it a slap.

My eye has just fallen on a paragraph in a Church paper, (a mere slip, copied from some exchange,) in which it is said the Washington national monument, now one hundred and four feet from the surface of the ground, is to be five hundred and seventeen feet high, and will be the loftiest structure in the world.

Now, to say nothing of the pyramids, of which the greatest, at least, is more than 600 feet high, and which, in bulk, bear no comparison with the slice out of one of them that would make our obelisk, a church now building in Moscow is to rear its central dome half as high again as the obelisk in Washington, when completed. The Church of St. Saviour, on Sparrow Hill, designed as a thank offering to God for the discomfiture of the French invader in 1812, is slowly but steadily lifting its enormous head, which is to rise, in the central dome, to the height of 770 feet above the foundation. The length of the building is to be 560 feet, and the west end is approached by a colonnade of half a mile in length, flanked with two towers, each 330 feet high, made of cannon taken from the French.



It appears, therefore, that if patriotism in this country can do a great deal, patriotism and religion combined, elsewhere, can do as much and a little more !—*Church Times*.

## RESULTS OF ECONOMY.

Every one becomes surprised in examining the Annuity Tables in familiar use in the offices of Life Insurance Companies, at the astonishing aggregate amount of the daily expenditures of small sums when compounded with interest, and finally summed up at the termination of a long life, as exhibited in the following abstract :

*Table showing the aggregate value of compound interest.*

Of an expenditure of		Amounting in				
		10 yrs.	20 yrs.	30 yrs.	40 yrs.	50 years.
2 $\frac{3}{4}$ cts day	or \$10 a yr.	\$100	\$300	\$790	\$1,540	\$2,900
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	260	720	1,550	3,080	5,800
8 $\frac{1}{4}$	30	390	1,050	2,370	4,620	8,700
11	40	520	1,440	3,160	6,160	11,600
13 $\frac{3}{4}$	50	650	1,860	3,950	7,700	14,500
27 $\frac{1}{2}$	100	1300	3,600	7,900	15,400	29,000
55	200	2600	7,200	15,800	30,800	58,000
82 $\frac{1}{2}$	300	3900	10,800	23,700	46,200	87,000
110	400	5200	14,400	31,600	61,600	116,000
137	500	6500	18,000	39,500	77,000	145,000

By reference to the preceding table it appears that if a laboring man, a mechanic, unnecessarily expends only 2 3-4 cents per day, from the time he comes of age to the time he attains the age of three score and ten years, the aggregate, with interest, amounts to \$2900 ; and a daily expenditure of 27 1-2 cents, amounts to the important sum of \$29,000. A six cent piece saved daily would provide a fund of nearly \$7000, sufficient to purchase a fine farm. There are few mechanics who cannot save daily by abstaining from the disgusting use of tobacco, from ardent spirits, from visiting theatres, &c., twice or thrice the above stated amount of a six cent piece.—The man in trade, who can lay by about one dollar per day, will find himself similarly possessed of one hundred and sixteen thousand dollars, and numbered among the 175 rich men, who own one half of the property of the city of Providence.—*Providence Journal*.

Most of our misfortunes are more supportable than the comments of our friends upon them.

*From the Christian Inquirer.*

## CHRIST HEALING DISEASES OF THE MIND.

WHILE our Saviour was upon earth, he seems to have excited the attention of the people chiefly, by his wonderful power of healing diseases. At the present time, comparatively little emphasis is laid upon this gift, and he is regarded almost exclusively as a spiritual teacher and a Saviour from sin. It is not well to lose sight of any aspect of Christian truth, especially of any aspect that tends to exhibit Christianity in its benign relations to the diseases of men, whether the sickness that grieves the body or the derangement that seizes the mind.—It will be found upon examination that all the parts of our Saviour's mission were intimately connected in their spirit, and have all important bearings upon the final purpose of his gospel.

There are some theologians and philosophers who regard all disease as the fruit of sin, and who would therefore consider Jesus as healing the disease by removing the sin from which it grew. This doctrine we can by no means endorse. Sin tends to bring on disease, and the accumulated tendencies to depravity that infect our race have undoubtedly much to do in bringing on derangement of the body. If the laws of the Creator were duly observed, the annals of sickness and suffering would be signally changed. Yet disease by no means implies evil disposition in the subject, nor can it be said to come entirely from the depraved habits of the race. While man is man, and not angel or God, he must expect to suffer both in body and mind. His very imperfection renders him liable to disease; and imperfection cannot in any satisfactory sense be called sin.

One class of diseases has been in former times regarded by Christians with peculiar repugnance, and especially associated with evil powers. We mean diseases of the mind, especially such as are violent in their character. These were ascribed to the influence of demons, and the sufferers were said to be possessed with devils. Probably the majority in Christendom hold this view now, although an opposite opinion is becoming prevalent in the more enlightened quarters, and has already done much to reform the methods of treating mental derangement.

At a time when so much attention is given to the whole subject, and so many noble asylums for the insane are endowed, it will not, we trust, be without interest to treat of the relation of our Saviour to the insane, and the true office of Christianity in regard to the mental sickness that appears to

have increased signally within the last half century throughout Christendom.

#### RELATION OF CHRIST TO THE INSANE.

What relation did our Saviour bear to the insane? It is very obvious that he ranked them among the sick, and thus comprised them within the circle of sufferers whom he came to heal. His sympathy extended equally to the maniac and the paralytic; equally to him whose brain was inflamed to madness and him whose blood was boiling with fever.—Morally, he looked upon all manner of diseases with the same benevolent eye. All are mentioned in the same general statement, and all were treated in the same benignant way. The only reasonable ground of associating mental disease with guilt is afforded by associating all disease thus; for no just distinction can be made from Scripture testimony between sickness of body and sickness of mind. Both kinds of sickness, indeed, might be brought on by vices, but no more in the case of the mind than of the body could guilt be predicated.

Violent derangement indeed is spoken of repeatedly in the New Testament as the work of demoniacal possession. This was the prevalent method of accounting for the disease, and the use of this form of speech by our Saviour and his apostles may be regarded merely as acquiescence in the common phraseology, and no more implies an adoption of the idea than our use of the word "possessed," in reference to a refractory person, implies our belief in an actual demoniacal possession. But whatever may be our theory of the cause of the disease, the fact is plain. The persons brought to our Saviour as possessed with devils were obviously insane, and essentially the same phenomena occur now-a-days as were presented then.

Of the forty miracles, or nearly that number, specified as wrought by Jesus, six, or at most seven, were for the relief of demoniacs. But we are not by any means to regard this fact as indicating the proportion of his labors for the cure of sickness of mind. Only the most violent cases would be mentioned, as being in themselves so striking, and the relief so wonderful. Undoubtedly many other forms of mental disease were treated by him. The victim of despondency or melancholy was undoubtedly the object of his solicitude, equally with the raving maniac. He came to heal the sick, to cure all manner of diseases. There is no good reason to believe that any form of mental derangement, whether of the moral affections, or intellectual faculties, or active powers, was neglected by him. The evangelists, instead of exhausting the

events of our Lord's ministry, professed only to give a brief sketch of the chief circumstances ; and the last of the Gospels ends with the statement, that if the other things which Jesus did should be written every one, the world itself could not contain the books that should be written.

The fact of our Lord's solicitude for those invalid in mind being thus clear, and the place accorded them among the sick being established, we are led to look for the secret of his power over them. His power over the mental diseases was obviously a part of his power over sickness in general ; only, as might be expected, it would be more connected with direct moral influence in the case of diseases of the mind.—He was endowed by the Father with peculiar gifts. Indeed, the Father dwelt with him in such close union, that the power of Jesus over the body and the soul may well be called divine. He who created the body might renew its impaired functions. He who formed the mind might restore its broken faculties. So far as our Saviour was miraculously endowed, he is to be considered, of course, as possessing gifts peculiar to himself, and not to be expected in those not thus endowed. Yet we are warranted in ascribing a large share of his influence over the diseased in mind to the power of that faith and love which were his prevailing spirit, and which should be the spirit of all Christians. Faith, recognizing as it does a divine kingdom, and bringing its sanctions to bear within the soul and its sphere, has in its own nature vast power in removing melancholy and overawing violence ; whilst love, wherever strong enough to withstand provocation, and return good for evil, breathes peace all around, and can say to the tempest, " Be still !" and the tempest is hushed.

Our reply, then, to the question, " What was the relation of our Saviour to the diseased in mind ? " is, that he ranked them among the sick, and healed them alike by his miraculous gifts, and by the influence of the benign spirit which his life exemplified and his gospel enjoins.

#### TREATMENT OF THE INSANE.

That benign spirit is to be cherished by all who call Jesus Master, and should guide Christians in their relations to the diseased in mind.

In the early Church, and for ages afterwards, there was a class of persons called exorcists, whose especial office it was to bring men to their right mind by dislodging the evil spirits that were thought to possess them. But without reviving



the ceremonies and incantations of the ancient exorcism, we may regard it as the office of every Christian to rebuke evil spirits and bring every healing influence to the mind diseased.

It is no small study to understand the art of dealing with the morbid tempers that approach without entering the borders of derangement. As called to associate with persons of every variety of temperament, we all need to know the principles of mental hygiene, whilst as citizens of a community which must always have cases of decided mania, we are all bound to lend our influence to the support of such institutions as may afford due retirement and care of such cases.

To avoid causes of irritation is the first point to be attended to ; but the second point is more important, the endeavor to counteract the disease by turning the mind into a new and more healthful direction. It is in this department that surprising advances have been made as entirely to revolutionize the old mode of treatment. The chief powers now used to hold in check the maniac, are influences that tend to develop within him the spirit of peace and order. Decision, kindness, and inducement to labor, these are the agencies that now disarm the maniac of his fury, and prove far more powerful than the dungeons, chains, and scourges which they displaced. There is great sublimity in the history of the rise and progress of the better mode of treating the insane. It was amid the horrors of the French revolution the good angel of love first showed himself in the hospitals for the insane. To Pinel, more than probably to any other man, belongs the honor of rebuking the old practice and introducing the new. He conceived the idea of ruling madness by its opposite, instead of inflaming its fury by a violence akin to its own. The chains were stricken off, the scourges laid aside, in the hospitals under his charge, and the result seemed a miracle. A new spirit seemed to pervade these abodes of the wretched. Many who had been looked upon for years as dangerous maniacs, and were kept chained like tigers, now walked their rooms in peace, as if subdued by the power of love, and charmed into the sentiment of order. The movement went on, and is still in progress. Now, throughout all the more favored communities of Christendom, moral medicine is the chief dependence in the treatment of mental disease ; and the daily hymn and prayer, aided by kind demeanor and interesting employment, are heard in retreats, such as once rung with shrieks and clanking chains. No

more beautiful chapter in the history of Christian philanthropy can be found, than that which records the labors of a woman from our own Christian connection in behalf of the insane. The Master's spirit has to no small extent rested upon this disciple. Her counsels have had no small influence on legislatures, and her voice has been for years the first sound of love that has penetrated the poor maniac's cell. There is a lesson in the whole history of the treatment of mental disease, that has a far wider application than to the economy of a lunatic asylum.

It brings before us the great duty not only of curing but also of preventing morbid states of mind. Herein is the great mission of Christianity in reference to mental disease, and one which it may be justly expected to perform at the period of its so general prevalence as the religion of civilized men. What can tend more to prevent unsoundness of mind than the faith, temper and usefulness enjoined in the New Testament ?

Is the intellect in danger of being diseased, either by extravagance or delusion ; what can bring it more effectually to its true balance than the great central truth held up by the gospel ? There God is revealed in the benignity of his attributes, and in the tenderness of his relation to man. Let the doctrine of God as revealed by Christ, be received in a genuine faith, and the mind is poised upon its true centre, and is turned to its true light. Thus faith itself prevents mental disease by giving the intellect its true object of reliance, and interpreting life from the true point of view.

The Christian spirit of good-will is another mighty safeguard of mental health. As it pervades the individual or community, the passions are calmed by its power, or are soothed into affections that bless.

The Christian principle of usefulness, too, has power to prevent morbid states of mind. Useful activity works happily upon all the energies, and gives a healthful outlet to impulses, that if left to themselves, might settle down into stagnant sentiment, or break out into morbid frenzies. As men are fitly and earnestly employed, the mind is kept in its normal state, and calm activity engrosses the forces that might else become refractory.

Christian faith, love, usefulness—these three combined, are the agencies that are sufficient to prevent in great measure the increase of mental disease. Let them be duly cherished, and many a victim would be spared from the annals

of madness, and, what is quite as important, the morbid humors and petulant tempers that bring a virtual derangement to so many hearts and homes, would be vastly diminished, and the sum of human happiness be incalculably increased. Christ has vindicated the worth of his principles sufficiently by results to urge us to trust in them more entirely for healing and salvation. Every advance in humanity is an advance in the triumphs of his Word.

From time to time, as Christian journalists, we have thought it our duty to lay before our readers such facts and observations upon this important subject, as the reports of asylums and the publications of medical men afford. To such writers as Dr. Ray, of Providence, Dr. Jarvis, of Dorchester, and others of the same scientific and humane class, we are indebted for many valuable reflections, whilst every year gives proof that their labors are not in vain. To the true leader of this blessed reform be the honor given.

Above all human acts, endowments and enterprises, it becomes us to look to Him who was sent of the Father to preach the gospel of the heavenly kingdom, and to heal every sickness and every desire among the people. To God, through him, be all the glory.

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## DEMOCRACY OF SCIENCE.

BY JOSIAH HOLBROOK.

Ten minerals have been called the "GEOLOGICAL ALPHABET." They are quartz, feldspar, mica, hornblend, lime, slate, gypsum, serpentine, talc, and chlorite. Separate and combined, they form mountains, rocks, and soils. They are also the depositories of ores, crystals, and minerals, furnishing materials for industry, the arts, commerce, wealth, science, refinement, comfort, and progress.

The alphabet of Geology can be learnt by any child of six years in a day; many of the specimens being collected by *his own hands*, giving employment, instruction, amusement, and materials for "SELF-INSTRUCTION" in his future progress.—Every pupil in a New York school—five hundred in all—on returning home at night, took with him six letters of the Geological alphabet, all collected, broken, labelled, and arranged by the pupils themselves, as their amusement for that day.—Thousands upon thousands of similar cases have occurred within a few years past in almost every section of the country. This fact gives the secret of the unparalleled progress recently made in Geology, and for the immense developments of our

natural resources in all parts of the country, alike for wealth and for science. The reduction in the price of chrome yellow, from fifteen dollars to twenty-five cents a pound, within a short time, is among the results of amusement in "Geological Excursions."

The work of "Progress" in the Democracy of Science now proposed is to have the alphabet, better, a "Cabinet of Geology," collected by the members of each of the hundred thousand schools and six millions of families in our country, *the work of their own hands*. Aided by the progress already made, this great step is as simple and easy as it is important. It can be commenced any moment, anywhere, when a teacher or parent shall request a pupil or child to step out of the door and pick up the first pebble he can find. That pebble, in nine cases out of ten, will be quartz; furnishing probably as rich and as far-reaching a lesson of instruction as ever was or ever can be given to any pupil. A highly distinguished Geologist has written a volume on "The Pebble," a book equally fraught with instruction and entertainment.

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HABIT.—"I TRUST everything, under God," said Lord Brougham, "to habit, upon which, in all ages, the lawgiver, as well as the schoolmaster, has mainly placed his reliance; habit, which makes everything easy, and casts all difficulties upon the deviation from a wonted course. Make sobriety a habit, and intemperance will be hateful; make prudence a habit, and reckless profligacy will be as contrary to the nature of the child, grown or adult, as the most atrocious crimes are to any of your lordships. Give a child the habit of sacredly regarding the truth; of carefully respecting the property of others; of scrupulously abstaining from all acts of improvidence which can involve him in distress, and he will just as likely think of rushing into an element in which he cannot breathe, as of lying, or cheating, or stealing."

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AN ALLEGORY.—A humming-bird met a butterfly, and, being pleased with the beauty of its person and the glory of its wings, made an offer of perpetual friendship.

"I cannot think of it," was the reply, "as you once spurned me, and called me a drawling dolt."

"Impossible!" exclaimed the humming bird. "I always entertained the highest respect for such beautiful creatures as you."

"Perhaps you do now, said the other, "but when you insulted me I was a caterpillar. So let me give you a piece of advice. Never insult the humble, as they may some day become your superiors."



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## REPORT

Of Rev. ZALMON TOBEY, Visiting Committee of the Public Schools, to the School Committee of the town of Warwick, June, 1852: to which is appended, an Address to Parents.

### REPORT.

*To the School Committee of the Town of Warwick:*

It becomes my duty on this occasion, to present to you a report of the condition and progress of the public schools in this town, during the past year.

Upon reviewing my labors, I find I have made fifty-three visits to the schools, which have been apportioned as nearly as circumstances would permit, agreeably to the requirements of the law.

At each visit, I have made a short address to the pupils, and closed the interview with prayer. The schools are generally opened in the morning by reading a portion of the holy scriptures, either by the scholars or teachers, or both. In a few instances, prayer by the teacher has succeeded the reading of the scriptures, and one or two schools have opened in the morning by the teacher and scholars repeating the Lord's Prayer in concert. The practice of singing has been less frequent than in preceding years. Short exercises of that kind relieve the monotony and tedium of the school room, and exert a healthful influence upon both body and mind, and should receive a due share of attention.

There have been twenty-seven teachers employed the past year, and with two or three exceptions, they have been of the

right stamp; and in almost every respect, well qualified for the important and difficult work they had undertaken. The schools have exhibited a prosperous and improving condition compared with last year, results which may be legitimately expected from those who make teaching a permanent business. A very considerable proportion of the teachers have had long experience; others, whose experience has been less, have made up in a good degree that deficiency, by ample literary qualifications, and devotion to their duties.

In making a few general remarks, I would say, that although my labors have been arduous, yet they have been greatly relieved by the co-operation of the Trustees of the several districts, of such of the parents as I have met in my visits, and by the kind, polite and cordial reception of the teachers. My labors have thus been pleasant, and I trust not wholly in vain. It is with regret, however, that I am compelled to make any exceptions; but duty impels me to say, that in some places the order and cleanliness of the school-rooms did not receive due attention, and in more, the order and cleanliness of the yards and the other necessary appurtenances to the school room, appeared to have been entirely neglected. Such negligence can have none other than an injurious influence on young and susceptible minds. I am happy to add, however, that my suggestions in regard to the removal of those evils were kindly received and duly heeded.

I am an advocate for permanence in the situation of teachers. Upon close observation, I am forced to the conclusion, that those teachers who have continued longest in any one school, have almost invariably proved the most useful; and in the selection of teachers, other things being equal, preference should be given to those of our own town and of our own State. The necessity of seeking teachers abroad is rapidly becoming less, and we shall, doubtless, soon be able to supply our own wants.

It is really very desirable that more attention should be given to the study of grammar—and that a suitable text-book on morals should be introduced into our schools.

It is obvious to my mind, that our schools are in an improving condition; and it appears to me that the past is in advance of the preceding year, as to the qualifications and government of the teachers, their devotion to their duties and the consequent improvement in learning, and in the deportment of the scholars.

In illustration of my views of the care which should be taken of the school-house and its appurtenances, I beg leave to close these remarks by a quotation from an interesting and useful juvenile work, entitled the *Youth's Cabinet*.

“A certain school teacher in a certain village in Massachusetts, was quite neat himself, and required his pupils to be neat also. When he took charge of the school, he noticed that the children, in muddy weather, were accustomed to enter the school-room and stamp the mud on the floor, or carry it to their seats, and soil the floor for a large space around them. No sweeping could clean such a floor, and of course, none had been attempted more than once a week. Determined to make an attempt at reform, he obtained a piece of iron hoop, and nailing one end to the door, he fastened the other to a walnut stake that he drove into the ground. Every child was required to scrape his shoes before he entered the room—and the consequence was, that the true floor became visible through the crust that covered it. The next step was to get a rug for the entry, and a neat farmer’s wife very readily gave him an old one that she could spare. It did not take him long to induce a habit of scraping and wiping the shoes, and the lad or miss who did not do this was soon noticed by the rest, and made to feel that he or she had not done all that was required.

“Soon after the rug was introduced, the teacher ventured to have the whole floor of the school room washed, not scoured—for he had to do it himself on Saturday afternoon, and washing was all he was competent to do. When the scholars came on Monday morning, it was evident they were taken by surprise. They had never seen the like before—the very knots in the floor were visible; and they gave several extra rubs and scrapes before they ventured to set foot on the beauties now so strangely exposed. The teacher thus introduced one thing after another, taking care not to go too fast, and although he had no penalty for a breach of the rules of neatness, he introduced a public sentiment, which restrained the pupils more effectually than the rod; and as his own example was always made to second his rules, the children found no hardship or injustice in them.”

All of which is respectfully submitted.

ZALMON TOBEY.

## ADDRESS TO PARENTS.

“Domestic happiness! thou only bliss  
Of Paradise, that has survived the fall!  
Though few now taste thee unimpaired and free,  
Or, tasting, long enjoy thee; too infirm,  
Or too incautious, to preserve thy sweets  
Unmixed with drops of bitter.”

## PARENTAL DUTIES.

1st. First in importance and underlying all others, is that of parental government.

We have authority from the highest source, to say, that the father is the head of the family. God has constituted him a king in his own family, and made it his imperative duty to rule his own house well, having his children in subjection.—We adhere to the doctrine, that, in the father, as the head of the family, are united the three important offices of Prophet, Priest, and King. As a prophet, he is their instructor and teacher; as a priest, it is his duty to present oblations of prayer, thanksgiving and praise to the Supreme Being; and as a king he is to maintain a wise and equitable government over all the subjects of his empire. The father and mother are sometimes considered the *united head of the family*.

In every well regulated family, the father and mother will act in union, and with a single eye to the best good of the whole, and the commands of each should be regarded by the children as of equal authority. Hence the divine command: —“Children obey your parents in the Lord; for this is right.” As it is the duty of children to obey their parents it is equally the duty of parents to secure obedience. Parents are the natural guardians of their children and reason as well as God and scripture, shows it to be the duty of parents to command and of children to obey. We have a happy and striking illustration of the blessed fruits resulting from the exercise of wise and judicious parental authority and discipline, in the case of Abraham. God said concerning Abraham: Shall I hide from Abraham that thing which I do; seeing that Abraham shall surely become a great and mighty nation, and all the nations of the earth shall be blessed in him? For I know him, that he will command his children and his household after him, and they shall keep the way of the Lord, to do justice and judgment; that the Lord may bring upon Abraham that which he hath spoken of him. Gen. 18: 17, 20. It would be difficult to conceive of a greater honor than that conferred upon Abraham. The reason assigned for this is, he will command his children and his household after him. Abraham was first



a blessing to his family, before he was made a blessing to all the nations of the earth.

On the other hand we have a sad illustration of the consequence of neglecting this duty, in the example of Eli. Eli did not exercise a proper authority over his sons. He did not *so* command them as to secure their obedience. He was kind and indulgent. So he thought. But his indulgence was in reality *cruelty* to them, for he allowed them to disobey him. He used moral suasion, he reasoned with his sons. He advised them and wished them to do right. He said unto them, why do ye such things? for I hear of your evil dealings by all this people. Nay, my sons; for it is no good report that I hear. 1. Samuel 2: 23, 24. Notwithstanding, they hearkened not to the voice of their father. They were disobedient still;—wherefore the Lord God of Israel saith, I said indeed that thy house and the house of thy father, should walk before me for ever; but now the Lord saith, be it far from me; for them that honor me, I will honor, and they that despised me shall be lightly esteemed. And this shall be a sign unto thee, that shall come upon thy two sons, on Hophri and Phinehas: “in one day they shall die, both of them.” We cheerfully, even thankfully, recognize modern improvements in regard to many things, but on the subject of family government nothing can supercede the necessity of the divine precepts. He that spareth the rod, hateth his son; but he that loveth him, chasteneth him betimes. Prov. 13, 24. The rod and reproof giveth wisdom; but a child left to himself bringeth his mother to shame. Correct thy son, and he shall give thee rest; yea, he shall give delight unto thy soul.—Prov. 29: 15, 17.

It was Eli's fault, his neglect of family government, that his sons did so wickedly, “In that day I will perform against Eli all things which I have spoken against his house; when I begin I will also make an end. For I have told him, that I will judge his house for ever, for the iniquity which he knoweth; because his sons made themselves vile, and he *restrained* them not. 1. Samuel 3: 12, 13.

We can scarcely over estimate the importance of parental government. If parents do not secure the implicit obedience of their children, home, sweet home, the place, above all others, which should contain quiet, order, politeness, harmony, all earthly bliss, will instead, exhibit a scene of confusion, uproar, division, will become a perfect Babel.

2d. Children who are not taught, compelled even if necessity demands, to obey their parents, will not love and respect them. It may please them for a time to be allowed to have their own way, to indulge their own inclinations unrestrained

by parental authority, but afterwards, when they shall have experienced the sad consequences of such indulgence, in ruined fortunes, broken constitution, neglected education, vicious and ruinous habits, poverty and misery, then will they bitterly regret this indulgence, and become the accusers of their over indulgent parents as the cause of all their wretchedness.

3d. Disobedience to parents contains the very root and germ of all kinds of disobedience. How can they who obey not their parents whom they have seen, obey their *Heavenly Father* whom they have not seen, and how shall they who disregard the highest authority on earth, respect even the highest authority in heaven? Hence it occasions little surprise, when those who are disobedient to parents, condemn the law of their Maker, show little respect to the civil Magistrate, and bid open defiance to the authority of their instructors and teachers.

4th. Parents may see their obligations to do their duty in order to secure the obedience of their children from an ancient law in Israel, which shows the crime and consequences of disobedience. This law is based on this supposition that the fault in the case is not on the part of the parent, but that of the child. The parents are supposed to have done their duty. They have failed to secure obedience, not because of their own neglect, but through sheer and peculiar stubbornness on the part of the child.

“If a man have a stubborn and rebellious son, which will not obey the voice of his father, or the voice of his mother, and that, when they have chastened him, will not hearken unto them: Then shall his father and his mother lay hold on him, and bring him out unto the elders of the city, and unto the gate of his place; And they shall say unto the elders of the city, This our son is stubborn and rebellious, he will not obey our voice, he is a glutton and a drunkard. And all the men of his city shall stone him with stones, that he die: So shalt thou put evil away from among you, and all Israel shall hear and fear.”—Deut. 21: 18–22.

I am fully aware that there is scarcely a more common complaint in regard to a disobedient child, than that he will not listen to advice, to remonstrance, or entreaty. But this complaint, I fear, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, is very far from being fair. As well might the keeper of an orchard complain, that his branches will not yield to be trained. In such a case, you would say, “My friend, all this is idle talk; your season is over and gone; you have been absent, or unequal, or negligent, at a former period. Where were you when these branches were twigs? Where, when they might

have been trained with a hair, and when they bent at your breath? So is it, in general, with these inattentive or regardless children, now, indeed, so loudly complained of. They are proofs of some previous delinquency on the part of their ordained guardians—assuredly *not* proofs of the powerlessness or inefficiency of parental instruction.”

### ABSTRACT

From the Report of the School Committee of the town of  
Warwick, made to the town, in June, 1852.

Your School Committe beg leave to report as follows:

The moneys available for the support of Public Schools the past year, were derived from the following sources :

From the State Treasury,	. . . . .	\$1,755 86
From the town,	. . . . .	600 00
From registration tax,	. . . . .	261 80

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2,617 66

Add, balance in the Treasury, due to the several Districts, at the beginning of the year,		846 24
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\$3,463 90

The expenditures for the same time, have been	. . . . .	3,075 49
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Add, balances now in the Treasury, due to the several Districts,		388 41
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\$3,463 90

The whole number of scholars who attended school this year, as gathered from the District Returns, was 1,244 ; the average attendance was 812 ; the time the schools have been kept, was a fraction over seven months, and the cost per scholar, has been three dollars and seventy-five cents.

Compared with the last Annual Report, the number who have attended school, is 69 less, and the average attendance 96 less, than last year. This decline in numbers was confined mainly to two or three large Districts—the smaller Districts show on the whole, a small increase.

For the Committee :

S. H. GREENE, Clerk.

From Dickens's Household Words.

### THE WASTE OF WAR.

Give me the gold that war has cost,  
Before this peace-expanding day ;  
The wasted skill, the labor lost—  
The mental treasure thrown away ;  
And I will buy each rood of soil  
In every yet discovered land ;  
Where hunters roam, where peasants toil,  
Where many peopled-cities stand.

I'll clothe each shivering wretch on earth,  
In needful, nay, in brave attire ;  
Vesture befitting banquet mirth,  
Which Kings might envy and admire.  
In every vale, on every plain,  
A school shall glad the gazer's sight ;  
Where every poor man's child may gain  
Pure knowledge, free as air and light.

I'll build asylums for the poor,  
By age or ailment made forlorn ;  
And none shall thrust them from the door,  
Or sting with looks or words of scorn.  
I'll link each alien hemisphere !  
Help honest men to conquer wrong ;  
Art, Science, Labor, nerve and cheer ;  
Reward the Poet for his song.

In every crowded town shall rise  
Halls Academic, amply graced ;  
Where ignorance may soon be wise,  
And coarseness learn both art and taste.  
To every province shall belong  
Collegiate structures, and not few—  
Filled with a truth-exploring throng,  
And teachers of the good and true.

In every true and peopled clime  
A vast Walhalla hall shall stand ;  
A marble edifice sublime,  
For the illustrious of the land ;  
A Pantheon for the truly great,  
The wise, beneficent, and just ;  
A place of wide and lofty state  
To honor or to hold their dust.

A temple to attract and teach  
Shall lift its spire on every hill,



Where pious men shall feel and preach  
Peace, mercy, tolerance, good-will ;  
Music of bells on Sabbath days,  
Round the whole earth shall gladly rise ;  
And one great Christian song of praise  
Stream sweetly upward to the skies.

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From the American Journal of Insanity.

### SUPPOSED INCREASE OF INSANITY.

Some of these causes of the increase of insanity are the same in all ages and in all nations, and in all states of barbarism and civilization.

Those especially which belong to the malignant and the evil passions, anger, hatred, jealousy, pride, and violent temper, are probably the same at all times, and have an unvarying amount of influence on the sanity of the brain.

Those causes connected with the depressing emotions and feelings, anxiety on account of the sufferings of friends and relatives, fear of their loss, sorrow for their death, and probably those causes which are connected with family variances and misconduct, with the ill treatment of parents and husbands, remain as active now as ever, and no more.

There are other causes of grief which become more painful with social cultivation, and therefore disturb the nervous system more.

In a higher state of refinement, the sensibilities become more keen, and the tender passions more powerful and more relied upon as sources of happiness. Then the affections between the sexes are more ardent and abiding, and have a more controlling influence over them, than in a ruder state ; and a rupture of the proposed union, a disappointment in love, the failure of tenderness, of respect, or of fidelity in a partner after marriage, would produce a keener anguish, a more effective shock, and wear upon the spirits more in a refined than in a less cultivated state of society, where less was hoped, and less suffering would follow failure or disappointment. Therefore, we may look for more insanity from disappointed love or domestic troubles now, than in former ages.

But, on the other hand, the same cultivation of life and spirit would probably engender more permanence of affection in both parties, more respect, and faithfulness, and tenderness, in the domestic circle, so as to diminish the frequency of the causes of their disappointments and sorrows.

Some of the other causes connected with the feelings and passions, quarrels, duels, lawsuits, have probably diminished.

The causes connected with religion have doubtless dimin-

ished within the last thirty years. These have always been active. As far back as even in the days of the oldest heathenism of which we have any record, there were those who became so exalted with their feelings of inspiration, that they imagined themselves especially endued with knowledge and gifts from superior beings. The Pythoness "spoke the oracles of the God, often with loud howlings and cries." There were the enthusiasts and the uncontrollable fanatics in all the days of the Roman Church. Since the Reformation, when sects have multiplied, the various forms of doctrines meet more varieties of temperament, and probably more are brought under their active influence. With this change comes more desire to produce immediate and powerful impressions, and a greater confidence that this impression will establish one in a more satisfactory religious condition.

The desire to be so impressed, and the impression itself, after it is received, create in some, a state of doubt between hope and fear, an anxiety and a mental struggle to attain to the position of security and happiness.

There is probably less of insanity from this cause in New England now, than there was in the last and the preceding generation, yet all ages are subject to it.

The causes connected with mental labor, in its manifold applications, have increased and are increasing continually. In the progress of the age, education has made rapid advances, both in reaching a wider circle of persons and in multiplying the subjects of study.

The improvements in the education of children and youth, have increased their mental labors, and imposed more burdens upon their brains, in the present than in the preceding ages. The proportion of children who are taught in schools increases every year in the United States, and in most civilized nations. There are more and more of those whose love of knowledge, whose sense of duty, whose desire of gratifying friends, and whose ambition, impel them to make their utmost exertions to become good scholars. Thus they task their minds unduly, and sometimes exhaust their cerebral energies, and leave their brains a prey to other causes which may derange them afterwards.

The new sciences which have been lately discovered, or the old sciences that were formerly confined to the learned, but are now simplified and popularized, and offered to the young as a part of their education, multiply the subjects of study and increase the mental labor of almost all in schools.

Men and classes of men, such as in the last century would have thought of nothing but how they should obtain their bread, are now induced to study subjects and pursue sciences,

and burden their brains with great, and sometimes excessive labor. New fields of investigation have been laid open within the last hundred, and especially within the last fifty years. New inducements are offered, so that a greater variety of tastes is invited to their peculiar feasts of knowledge.—Many persons now study phrenology, metaphysics, mathematics, physiology, chemistry, botany, and other branches of natural history, to say nothing of mesmerism, biology, &c., and thus they compel their brains to labor with more energy and exhausting zeal than those of any former generation. In this multiplication of students, there are some who attempt to grapple with subjects that they cannot master, and sink under the burden of perplexity which they cannot unravel.

In this general increase of mental activity, some men become interested, and give their minds intensely to the study of public topics, politics, state or national affairs, and the subjects of legislation, the banking system, tariff, anti-rent, anti-masonry, the license question, &c., or to public moral questions, anti-slavery, temperance, and general or special reforms, any or all of which impose upon them great anxiety and mental labor.

In this country, where no son is necessarily confined to the work or employment of his father, but all the fields of labor, of profit, or of honor, are open to whomsoever will put on the harness and enter therein, and all are invited to join the strife for that which may be gained in each, many are in a transition state from the lower and less desirable to the higher and more desirable conditions. They are struggling for that which cost them mental labor, anxiety, and pain. The mistake, or the ambition of some leads them to aim at that which they cannot reach, to strive for more than they can grasp, and their mental powers are strained to their utmost tension; they labor in agitation, and they end in frequent disappointment.—Their minds stagger under the disproportionate burden; they are perplexed with the variety of insurmountable obstacles, and they are exhausted with the ineffectual labor.

There are many whose education is partially wrong, and some whose education is decidedly bad. These persons have wrong notions of life. They are neither taught to understand the responsibilities that they must meet, nor are they prepared to sustain them. They are filled with false hopes. They are flattered in childhood and youth, but they are not accustomed to mental labor, nor disciplined and strengthened to bear burdens. They are led to expect circumstances that will not belong to them. They look for success, honor, or advantages, which their talents, or education, or habits of business, or station in the world, will not obtain for them. Consequently,

when they enter responsible life, they are laying plans which cannot be fulfilled, they are looking for events which will not happen. They are struggling perpetually and unsuccessfully against the tide of fortune. They are always hoping, but they are frequently disappointed. Their ineffectual labor exhausts them, and their disappointments distress and disturb them. They are thus apt to become nervous, querulous, and despondent, and sometimes insane.

But in an uneducated community, or where the people are overborne by despotic government or inflexible customs; where men are born in castes, and die without overstepping their native condition; where the child is content with the pursuit and the fortune of his father, and has no hope or expectation of any other; there these undue mental excitements and struggles do not happen, and men's brains are not confused with new plans, nor exhausted with the struggles for a higher life, nor overborne with the disappointment in failure. Of course, in such a state of society, these causes of insanity cannot operate. But in proportion as education prevails, and emancipates the new generations from the trammels and condition of the old, and the manifold ways of life are open to all, the danger of misapplication of the cerebral forces and the mental powers increases, and men may think and act indiscreetly, and become insane.

The same is distinctly manifested in the pursuit of business. There are many new trades and new employments; there are new schemes of increasing wealth, new articles of merchandise, and speculations in many things of new and multiplying kinds. All these increase the activity of the commercial world. The energy of men of new enterprises gives a hope of actual value, and a momentary market value to some new kinds of property.

The consequent inflation or expansion of prices, to a greater or less degree, makes many kinds of business more uncertain, and many men's fortunes more precarious. This increases the doubts and perplexities of business, the necessity of more labor and watchfulness, greater fear and anxiety; and the end is more frequently in loss, and failure of plans, and mental disturbance.

Besides these uncertainties, which may happen to any, there are more that enter the free and open avenues to occupations which hold out high and flattering promises, and for which they are unprepared, in which they must struggle with greater labor and anxiety than others, and in which they must be more frequently disappointed.

Besides these causes of mental disturbance in the new and untried fields of study, business, and commerce, there are oth-



er causes in the social position which are subject to like changes. Many are passing, or have passed, from a comparatively retired, simple, and unpretending, to the showy, the fashionable, or the cultivated style of life. In this transition state, there must be more mental labor for those who are passing from one condition to the other; there must be much thought and toil, much hope and fear, and much anxiety and vexation, to effect the passage, and to sustain one's self in the new position.

With the increase of wealth and fashion there comes also more artificial life, more neglect of the natural laws of self-government, more unseasonable hours for food and for sleep, more dissipation of the open, allowable, and genteel kind, and also more of the baser, disreputable, and concealed sorts.

Consequent upon the new labor, and new positions, and new styles of life, there comes more low health from exhausting and perplexing cares and toils of business of social life and fashion, and from frequent irregular habits of diet and regimen. The secondary consequences of impaired health, of diminished vital forces, dyspepsia, debility, consumption, gout, or other diseases, are manifested in the brain; and then nervousness frequently, and insanity sometimes follows.

Thus we see that, with advancing civilization and especially in the present age and in our own country, there is a great developement of activity of mind; and this is manifested in most of the employments, in the conduct of the mechanic arts, agriculture, trade, and commerce, in the attention to the professions, and to other subjects of duty, and to politics. This increase of mental activity and of cerebral action, comes without a corresponding increase of discretion to guide it, and of prudence to restrain it.

And this proneness to mental action must prevail until the world learn the nature and the limit of their mental faculties, the connection of these with the brain, and the connection of the brain with all the other physical organs, and govern themselves accordingly.

In review of this history of the causes of insanity, we find that very few of them diminish with the progress of the world. Some are stationary, remaining about the same in the savage, the barbarous, and the civilized state, while many of them increase, and create more and more mental disorder.

Insanity is then a part of the price which we pay for civilization. The causes of the one increase with the developements and results of the other. This is not necessarily the case, but it is so now. The increase of knowledge, the improvements in the arts, the multiplication of comforts, the

amelioration of manners, the growth of refinement, and the elevation of morals, do not of themselves disturb men's cerebral organs and create mental disorder. But with them come more opportunities and rewards for great and excessive mental action, more uncertain and hazardous employments, and consequently more disappointments, more means and provocations for sensual indulgence, more dangers of accidents and injuries, more groundless hopes, and more painful struggle to obtain that which is beyond reach, or to effect that which is impossible.

The deductions, then, drawn from the prevalence and effects of causes, corroborate the opinion of nearly all writers, whether founded on positive or known facts, on analogy, on computation, or on conjecture, that insanity is an increasing disease. In this opinion all agree.—*Edward Jarvis, M. D.*

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### TRIFLES MAKE PERFECTION.

That writer who aspires to immortality, should imitate the sculptor, if he would make the labors of the pen as durable as those of the chisel. Like the sculptor, he should arrive at ultimate perfection, not by what he adds, but by what he takes away,—otherwise all his energy may be hidden in the superabundant mass of his matter, as the finished form of an Apollo in the unworked solidity of the block. A friend called on Michael Angelo, who was finishing a statue. Sometime afterwards he called again; the sculptor was still at his work. His friend, looking at the figure, exclaimed, "You have been idle since I saw you last." "By no means," replied the sculptor. "I have retouched this part, and polished that; I have softened this feature, and brought out this muscle; I have given more expression to this lip, and more energy to this limb." "Well, well" said his friend, "but all these are trifles." "It may be so," replied Angelo; "but recollect, that trifles make perfection, and that perfection is no trifle."

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### "SOLDARITE."

This is a favorite word of Kossuth's. It is French, and has not yet found its way into our dictionaries. It expresses generally, that the life of man is not exclusively the life of an individual, but life which he possesses jointly with his race; that men live in *solido*, soldered together in one, if we may say so; that each man is an indivisible indissoluble of

the life of all men, and all men are indivisible parts of each man. St. Paul gives its meaning thus: "For, as we have many members in one body, so we, being many, are one body in Christ, and every one members one of another."—See also Ephesians, iv. 25, and other places. No word in English conveys what is expressed by soldarite, or soldarity, as it is now generally printed. With this definition, the reader will readily apprehend what is meant by the soldarity of nations, now often used.

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From the New York Quarterly Review.

## MAXIMS AND REFLECTIONS.

TRANSLATED FROM GOETHE.

Tell me with whom thou art found, and I will tell thee who thou art; let me know thy chosen employment, and what to expect from thee, I know.

Every one must think in a way peculiar to himself; since he finds in his path a truth, or a kind of truth, which affects his whole life; only let him not cease to control himself; mere naked instinct is not becoming to man.

Incessant activity, of what kind soever, leads at last to bankruptcy.

In the works of men, as in those of nature, aims and intentions are specially to be regarded.

Men will err both in respect to themselves and others, whilst they pursue means as ends; for, from this false activity nothing can come, or perhaps the opposite of that which they wish.

Whatever we think out, whatever we take in hand to do, should be so perfectly and finally finished, that the world, if it must alter, will only have to spoil it; we have then, nothing to do but unite the severed, to re-collect and restore the dismembered.

Broad and general ideas, combined with strong prejudices, are calculated to produce serious mischief.

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Instead of regretting that we are sometimes deceived, we should rather lament that we are undeceived.

What we wish to do we think we can do, but when we do not wish to do a thing it becomes impossible.

From Graham's Magazine.

## THE BUILDERS.

BY HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

All are architects of Fate,  
Working in these walls of Time ;  
Some with massive deeds and great,  
Some with ornameats of rhyme.

Nothing use-loss is, nor low ;  
Each thing in its place is best ;  
And what seems but idle show,  
Strengthens and supports the rest.

For the structuræ that we raise,  
Time is with materials filled ;  
Our to-days and yesterdays,  
Are the blocks with which we build.

Truly shape and fashion these,  
Leave no yawning gaps between,  
Think not, because no man sees,  
Such things will remain unseen.

In the elder days of art,  
Builders wrought with greatest care  
Each minute and each unseen part—  
For the gods see every where.

Let us do our work as well,  
Both the unseen and the seen ;  
Make the house where gods may dwell,  
Beautiful, entire and clean.

Else our lives are incomplete,  
Standing in these walls of Time,  
Broken stair-ways where the feet  
Stumble, as they seek to climb.

Build to-day, then, strong and sure,  
With a firm and ample base ;  
And ascending and secure  
Shall to-morrow find its place.

Thus alone can we attain,  
To those turrets where the eye  
Sees the world as one vast plain  
And one boundless reach of sky.



## LESSONS ON OBJECTS.

The following letter from Professor Jaeger, whose lectures on Natural History have interested so many of our teachers, explains itself.

Prof. Jaeger is now engaged in teaching the foreign languages in Providence.

PROVIDENCE, April 15th, 1852.

Dear Sir—I was much pleased to see at the head of your R. I. Educational Magazine, January, 1852, “Methods of giving lessons on objects.” As this article has reference to one of the countless numbers of natural bodies, which are the most suitable objects for interesting the juvenile mind, by inducing them to think, and at the same time by showing them their nature and use, I take the liberty, Sir, to send you some gleanings in reference to Natural History, flattering myself, that you may, perhaps, honor them with an insertion in your Educational Magazine.

Though some of these articles may be found already mentioned in the second edition of my Class-Book of Zoology, and sometimes even more amplified, I wish, by sending you these lines, to show to the teachers of our youth, how valuable it will be for them, to be more acquainted with the study of Natural History, and how beneficial it would be to our youth to become familiar with the properties and use of the productions of nature, and by doing so, to improve at the same time their morals, in promoting true religious feelings, for the works of the Almighty are His voice in nature.

With sentiments of much esteem, I have the honor to be

Your obedient servant,

B. JAEGER.

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METHODS OF GIVING LESSONS ON OBJECTS.

Heads of a Lesson on an Animal Body.—*Albatros, Diomedea exulans.*

1. Particulars, regarding external appearances, qualities, etc.
2. Where it is found.
3. How the animal is obtained.
4. Uses to which it is applied.
5. History.

1. *The Animal.* Its body is white, except the pinion feathers, which are black; it is four feet long, weighs more than thirty pounds, and is larger and heavier than a Swan, or a Condor—for when the wings are expanded, it measures from eleven to seventeen feet across; and is, therefore the largest

flying bird. Its beak is yellow, thick, strong and hooked ; its feet are orange colored and webbed—on which account it belongs to the sixth order of birds, which comprehends the swimming birds.

2. It is often met with from 1000 to 1500 miles from land, in all parts of the southern hemisphere—and flocks of them are seen on the shore of the Cape of Good Hope, of Cape Horn, and Australia, where, at a distance, they look like flocks of white sheep, and on that account they are called Cape sheep.

3. As they seldom fly more than ten or twenty feet above the surface of the sea, where flying fish and cuttle fish form their principal food, they are easily caught with hooks.

4. Their flesh, though tough, is relished by the sailors ; but the eggs are very palatable ; their feathers are excellent for bedding, their skin furnishes a precious fur, and from their bones, are made needle-boxes and tobacco pipe-stems.

5. They build their nests upon the ground, from earth and grass, three feet high ; the eggs are white, and more than four inches long.

#### QUESTIONS.

What is the size, color, and weight of the Albatros ?

Compare it with the Swan and the Condor.

Describe its feet and its beak.

To what order of birds does it belong ? and why ?

Where is it found ?

What do you call the Southern Hemisphere ?

What is Cape of Good Hope, Cape Horn, and Australia ?

Why are these birds called Cape sheep ?

What do they feed on ?

How are they caught ?

What use is made of this bird ?

Describe their nest and eggs.

B. JAEGER.

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For the Rhode Island Educational Magazine.

#### THE UNFORSEEN BENEFITS DERIVED FROM THE STUDY OF NATURAL HISTORY ; OR,

#### THE NOBLE MINDED BOY.

Wasili Ostrow, (Basil's Island,) is one of the most pleasant quarters of the city of St. Petersburg. Situated on the borders of the Newa, which sends in slow and silent majesty between two high artificial granite walls its crystal waters towards the Baltic—it is adorned with magnificent public and private buildings. At one extremity of this island you may behold the gigantic Exchange, with two lofty light-towers ; and at the other, the Imperial Mining School, containing some hundred pupils, with its artificial mountains and mines.

Adjoining the above mentioned Exchange, the Imperial Academy of Sciences will not less attract your attention, for it contains an extensive cabinet of Natural History, and a splendid Observatory, but also a Palace with more than twenty large dwellings, wherein reside the resident members and functionaries of the Academy.

Not far distant from it, shines out among other buildings, a large and noble looking edifice, known as the Imperial Academy of Fine Arts, destined for free instruction.

But besides these great establishments, there are also seen in the same neighborhood, the two spacious Military Academies, together with the Marine School, each containing about 400 pupils, educated at the expense of the government.

Among many private institutions of education, dispersed in different parts of that island, there was also one very flourishing male boarding school, in which was a very bright boy, Twan K—skoy, who attracted the attention of every visitor, not only on account of cheerfulness, fine manners, and correct and modest answers, but principally on account of his well arranged cabinet of Natural History, which he was always ready and very ambitious to exhibit and explain to every one who took the least interest in it.

As the study of Natural History is a regular branch of instruction in every institution of the Russian empire, each boy, also, in this school, amused himself in his leisure hours, with arranging his specimens, which he had collected in his excursions. Thus, one had a cabinet of small quadrupeds, the other of birds, some other of reptiles, or fishes, or insects, or plants, or minerals.

But Twan's principal passion was Entomology; the study of insects. Early in the spring, he collected from fences, bushes, and branches of trees, a variety of cocoons, and carried whole baskets full of them home, knowing, that as soon as the temperature became warmer, the most perfect specimens of butterflies would emerge from them. Empty cigar-boxes were bought—their bottoms lined with a thin layer of wax; a quantity of long pins were procured, the butterflies stuck upon them, and secured therein. He collected, also, all kinds of beetles, grasshoppers, locusts, bees, wasps, hornets, flies, and a multitude of innumerable other species of insects. Thus, at the end of one summer, this industrious boy had in his collection about one thousand different species of insects. Several learned entomologists did not disdain to visit this enterprising youth; they examined his specimens, they made him acquainted with the names of every species; they exchanged with him duplicates, and procured him the acquaintance of some foreign entomologists in France, Germany, England and America, from



whom he received by exchange, the rarest specimens of all the countries of the world. His valuable collection consisted, at the time he had finished his education, of over 20,000 named and well arranged species of insects, of which he knew the name, native place, nature, use or injury, of almost every one.

But, notwithstanding his enthusiasm for entomology, in spite of his great love for his cabinet, he did not hesitate to part with this splendid collection in order to save his beloved mother and only sister from misery.

As his father was a high functionary in the navy department, and accused of embezzlement of public funds, he was exiled to Siberia, and sentenced to have his estate confiscated, on account of which the whole family became destitute, and without resources.

The generous Twan having only the interest and comfort of his parent and sister in mind, immediately offered for sale his valuable collection, and soon he realized for it 12,000 rubles, (\$1,200,) which he hastened to present to them.

For himself, he applied to the Emperor to be received as a free student at the Imperial Chirurgo medical Academy, in Wiburski-Ostrow, near St. Petersburg, which application was granted, and after four years' hard study, Twan K——skoy was appointed a physician in the navy, where he became a highly distinguished man.

B. JAEGER.

From the British and Foreign Review.

1. Stories of the Gods and Heroes of Greece, told by Berthold Niebuhr to his Son. Translated from the German. Edited by Sarah Austin. J. W. Parker, London, 1843.
2. The Home Treasury. Edited by Felix Summerly. London: J. Cundall, 1843.
3. Puss in Boots. Illustrated by Otto Speckter. London: J. Murray, 1843.

If as much ingenuity had been expended in tracing the origin and causes of what is called national character, as in inventing hypotheses, to account for it, we might perhaps by this time have arrived at some knowledge of the great secret of moulding the moral form of man. But in all that has been said or written on this subject, it is no less remarkable than melancholy how little evinces any humane intention, how little has been productive of the smallest good, how little shows any knowledge, or even any desire to obtain knowledge, of the secret causes which so powerfully modify our common nature. Striking contrasts and brilliant sketches, unfair satire, and passionate invective—or, at the best, fanciful theories,—have been



lavished on a subject deserving the most profound, cautious, and candid examination. For it ought to be the common labor of the wise and good to understand and correct the variations—be they what they may—of the human mind from the pole of truth. National vanity and national antipathy ought to yield to that benign humanity which looks down upon all infirmities with equal pity, and deems no question insignificant, no labor irksome, no sacrifice painful, so that it can trace one error to its source and then destroy it forever. But we may hope that the bitter and causeless hate of nations is dying away; we at least, in England, are no longer convinced that an unusual garment is a sign of depraved morals, or a strange dish a proof of an imbecile intellect; and if it be true that some of our neighbors still cling to the dream of a monopoly of excellence, we at least must renounce all such extravagant pretensions for ourselves with still greater eagerness than we deny them to others. The time is come when patient and benevolent research may be applied to the important subject of the moral differences in the human family, with a view to mutual correction and improvement.

It has often struck us that a humble, though not unimportant, and certainly not an uninteresting branch of this inquiry would relate to the books written professedly for children.—Often, while turning from the practical and positive children's books of England to the more imaginative and tender infant literature of Germany, we have asked ourselves, how far each was the cause, how far the effect or the expression, of national character. If, as we are persuaded, they are both the one and the other, there can be no doubt as to the course which reason and conscience would dictate to all those who have the business of administering mental food to the infant generation—whether parents, writers, or publishers. Whatever were the reigning prejudice, the common defect, the darling sin of the country in which they live—whatever the epidemic prevailing in the moral or intellectual atmosphere in which the infant mind has to develop itself,—they would anxiously withhold all that could dispose it to receive the contagion,—they would provide whatever could correct the noxious influences. Unfortunately all—parents, writers, and publishers—do the very reverse of this; the first, from ignorance, fashion, and prejudice; the second, from these mingled with pecuniary interest; the third, mainly from the latter motive. Accordingly, whatever be the common obliquity of the old, it is sure to be consciously or unconsciously assumed and prescribed as the *norm* or pattern for the young; in England, devotion to material objects and social distinctions, flat empiricism, blind religious antipathy; in France, monstrous national conceit, adoration of

military renown, and love of theatrical effects ; in Germany, misty abstractions and unprofitable *sensiblerie*. Such are among the qualities, the reproduction of which seems destined to be eternal, and which go to form what is called national character. We know few things more useful, few that would require more sound and enlarged philosophy, than a fair comparison and complete analysis of the children's books of these three nations, so nearly on a level in civilization, so different in spirit. They are the mould in which each generation fashions the succeeding one to its own image, the link which connects the mind already formed, to the tone and temper of its nation with that yielding mind which has its impressions to receive and its bent to take. That which is effected in infancy, by these unregarded instruments, could never be accomplished at a later stage of life by all the weight of science or all the persuasion of eloquence. The imagination has taken its tone, the heart has conceived the wishes, the hopes, the objects, which will be the springs of action through life. The studies of the man may awaken reflection or impart knowledge, but the first books which stirred his fancy or touched his heart, are those which gave an indelible color to his character.

In every country and age, children's books will partake of the prevailing tone of literature ; or, rather we should say, in the fresh and vigorous stage of literature will exist no such thing as children's books ; because the books fitted to delight a simple and imaginative people, will also delight children.—So long as the literature of England retained its pith and vigor, its simplicity of style and fulness of thought and fancy, we hear nothing of children's books. "Robinson Crusoe" and "Pilgrim's Progress," the two books which have probably been read by a greater number and with greater interest and deeper effect than any others, were certainly not written for children. But as this creative power and simple grandeur were extinct, or nearly so, in the seventeenth century—as the eighteenth, critical and sceptical, could create nothing that children or child-like men could care to read, it became necessary to *make* books professedly and specially for the entertainment of children, a sort of *industrie* never enough to be deplored. Berquin, Madame de Genlis, and a host of imitators in France, Germany and England, sent forth, for the enfeeblement and demoralization of the young world, a mass of affectations and simulations of virtue, pretty much alike in design, but colored in each country to suit the national taste ; till at length they attained such a pitch of mawkisnness, that the whole race of faultless, theatrical, preaching and whining papas and mammas, aunts and children, became intolerable and gave place to better things. The original aim of this class of books, was

“to check the immorality of the age” In many writers, this was, no doubt, sincere—in many it was affected—in all absurd. The cause of virtue is not to be served by falsehood, and all affectation is falsehood.

This most tiresome and unprofitable class of fictions may be considered to be extinct: it was succeeded by one of a very different character.

The beginning of the present century was marked by a tendency to what the French call material improvement, which has since spread widely and rapidly. From the time when the excitement of war ceased, the minds of Englishmen became absorbed in the pursuits which conduce to wealth or to the physical well-being of man. This movement was instantly accompanied by a corresponding change in the character of children's books. All that could tend to nourish the imagination, or to suggest reflection on the unseen, (self-reflection included,) was rejected as useless and even pernicious. Not only the mawkish modern fictions, but the delightful stories in which were embodied the fancy, the tenderness, the humor, the wisdom of ages,—which had travelled from the remotest climes, and found acceptance among people in every stage of culture, which with some slight change of costume or of incident had been adopted into every tongue,—were denounced as absurd and false. Babes and sucklings were made judges of evidence and calculators of probabilities; and the good-natured old man, who thought to amuse his infant hearer with what had delighted himself, was silenced by the preliminary inquiry, if it was all *true*? If even Mrs. Barbauld's matchless infants' books were tolerated, it was because they contained some “useful facts,” and not for the engaging charm of their childish prattle, or the poetical and religious feeling which pervades them. Facts were now the order of the day.

There is no doubt that the originators of this movement were earnest and sincere reformers. Insofar as their object was to substitute such information as could, by any artifice, be made palatable to children, or such lessons in domestic morality and the conduct of ordinary life as could be illustrated by stories, for the feeble and vulgar dregs of the Berquin school, it was laudable and successful. What they undertook to drive out of the field, was equally devoid of imagination and good sense, or what is called practical knowledge. The time was come when one of these was indispensable.

It belonged to the temper of the age and of the country we live in to choose the latter. One or two admirable and popular writers of children's books, did much to sanction and adorn this taste; but in fact they only obeyed an impulse, which it would have required much greater strength than they possess-



ed to resist. They were among the organs and illustrators of a great tendency. The only objects deemed worth striving after are wealth, and political or social consideration. To obtain these, a man must be possessed of some art or knowledge, by which he can make himself immediately useful or acceptable to those who have wealth and consideration to bestow ; hence moral science fell into complete neglect, and may be said no longer to have a place in England. The highest speculations, if unconnected with polemical theology, (and hence with political and social power,) have no audience. The cultivation of the reason, the study of the spiritual nature and destiny of man, require more time and abstraction from the world than a competitor in the actual race of life has to give. To what end, then, develop in the child a taste for the impalpable—the unreal, as it is called ? We will not say that this train of reasoning passed distinctly through the minds of the makers of children's books ; but, by instinct or design, they acted under the prevailing social influences. It is sufficiently evident that the heart and the fancy of childhood cannot take in the objects which fill the minds of "practical" full-grown men ; the only means of fitting them for the reception of such views, is to wean them from the bright visions and wandering speculations which are their natural element. Children, therefore, were to be seduced into practical studies by these monsters—formed of more heterogeneous parts than sphinx or chimera—stories to teach facts or morals, or more honestly forced to swallow the chaff of catechisms and compendiums as food. Accordingly, the starry sky, inviting to wonder and worship ; the beautiful flowers and animals, objects of its tender care and sympathy, and personages of many a pretty and touching drama ; the wide and strange world, and the adventures of its hardy explorers ; the heart-stirring events and awful figures of history ; all, in short, that could inspire love, pity, reverence and religion, were made the subject of catechisms. We once heard a child say, that she had learned thirteen of these instruments of mental torture and compression by heart. We need not say that the poor thing had, in the operation, lost the peculiar faculties with which heaven in its wisdom endowed the newly-awakened soul. It had, (not willingly, indeed,) bartered its birthright for a mess of pottage,—the sense of the great, the wonderful and the beautiful, the power of placing these in countless combinations—for the memory of barren facts of weight, number and measure, of which it could know neither the connexion nor the evidence.

It may be said that this is an extreme case : we willingly admit it. We are far from denying that in many books, of great excellenc in their kind, the facts are well selected and



amusingly told, and that they are often such as it is a matter of conventional necessity to know—if, indeed, we may abuse the word *knowledge* for the mere passive reception of certain assertions, which we take on credit. Such admission of unconnected and undigested matter into the mind, can of course, never be productive of any moral growth or fruit, and should pass for exactly what it is worth—a convenient conformity to general usage. Works of the kind in question, do, perhaps, sometimes answer a higher end; that namely of stimulating the curiosity of children; and if that curiosity is then allowed free course and ample food, an active, fruitful mind may be developed; but we suspect this is very rarely the case.

In the whole of this large class of books England is pre-eminent, and is justly regarded on the continent as the great fountain of nursery learning. The excellence of the workmanship is as little to be denied as that of the intention. A still more valuable pre-eminence is the unhesitating confidence with which the most careful mothers in Germany give their children English books, compared with the cautious admission of those of other countries. We have remarked with pride, that even those who cannot read English themselves, rest on the generally recognized safe morality of our books for childhood and youth, with a security, which will, we trust, never be deceived.

But while we gladly do homage to all that is praiseworthy in such productions, we confess that we doubt whether the well meant endeavor to bring every thing down to the level of a child's mind, or to cram it with heterogeneous particulars, be favorable to the production or nurture of any large intellect or elevated character. To speak plainly, we are convinced it is not. We complain, and with justice, of the universal diffusion of slight and superficial knowledge—the neglect of philosophy, the reign of empiricism in every branch of science, the absence of all æsthetical culture, the dearth of originality. And how do we attempt to remedy these defects? We give to our children books which are exactly adapted to lay on a varnish of science and literature over the whole surface of society, and to check the natural workings of the infant mind. It is not only the imagination, but the reason of children that is stifled. We have repeatedly seen, and never without wonder, at the conceit it betrayed, a book taken out of the hand of an eager, attentive child, “because he could not understand it;” as if any human being would, for his own amusement, continue to read words to which he affixed no meaning. “Oh, but,” we are

told, "he would understand them imperfectly." And what then? If you desire that your child should grow tall and erect, do you confine him in a room, the ceiling of which is exactly as high as his head? If you wish his body to unfold itself and acquire bulk and vigor, do you swathe it in tight bandages? Yet such is exactly the moral practice of good and careful mothers with their children. Nay, the absurdity and cruelty is in this case even greater; for the height and bulk of the body can be ascertained, but who shall take measures of that most wondrous, variable, quick and busy spirit, the mind of a young child? Who shall say that, because it does not understand a thing to-day, it will not understand it to-morrow? An hour, a minute, is often sufficient to suggest new trains of thought and open new combinations of facts. And what a burst of the young buds of reason and imagination have we witnessed, when a child has been left to its own unaided selection among books which it could not understand? At first the little discoverer has to grope his way through occasional darkness; but the lights that break in upon him are the brighter for the contrast, and lead him on with all the ardor of hope. How far more stimulating than the monotonous twilight to which you would condemn him!" "The only books from which we really learn," says Goethe, "are those which we cannot judge.—The author of a book which we are capable of judging must learn of us."

The early history and training of the greatest men is a subject of the deepest interest, and we have always been extremely anxious to see what were the books from which they received their first impressions. As yet it has not happened to us to have read of or have known a person of vigorous and original mind, who had not been allowed free access to strong meat, as soon as the appetite for it was excited.

An equally empty pretension is that of "forming the taste" of children, by pointing out the beauties of what they read. This is exactly the process by which to secure their having no taste at all. Beauty wants no showman or direct expositor; she reveals herself to the eyes prepared to behold her; till they are so, there is nothing to be done. She reveals herself too, under a thousand different aspects; each of us must behold her as he can,—as his gifts and opportunities will allow. It is easy to make a child repeat after its mother or teacher, that a passage is beautiful, but no real intuition of beauty was ever the result of any such process.—

The taste may be, and ought to be, cultivated, but by negative rather than positive means,—by placing within reach the best and highest models, on which the imagination and judgment can exercise themselves, and still more by carefully removing all that could corrupt, enfeeble or debase them. For this reason it is obvious that our remarks do not apply to parents who fill their houses with the common trash of circulating libraries and book societies. An informed mind left to itself, among the noxious stimulants, or no less enervating common-place superficiality of a literature written in and for idleness, must come to all the maturity it can ever attain, without having had a glimpse of the great, the beautiful, or the true. These are to be found in the works of genius, purged and sanctified by time. An active, susceptible mind, permitted to hold early converse with antiquity, and with the noble spirits of the best days of modern Europe, will stand the fairest chance of becoming original, discriminating and elevated, and at the same time, simple and reverential. And such reading is the most inviting to a healthy mind. How captivating to children is the simplicity of Herodotus! We have seen a little girl, who could but just read, leave her children's books and return to him again and again. Xenophon is scarcely less engaging. Plutarch, as full of noble and gentle sentiments as of interesting events, attaches all generous children. The want of good and agreeable translations of these and other writers of antiquity, is a great evil; they would be read by children and by the people, who would not only be won by their simplicity, but elevated by their grandeur. A free acquaintance with great models is absolutely indispensable to the formation of that discriminating sense of the beautiful, which we call taste—and this acquaintance cannot begin too soon. In like manner, it is not by telling a child this or that picture is fine, but by giving it, from the very first, the best copies or prints we can command of the greatest masters, and keeping out of its way all mediocrity, that a pure, sound and unerring taste can be formed.

We must say here, that we are not in general great friends of "illustrated" books for children—nor indeed, for anybody, but that is beside the purpose. The artist gives his own conceptions, often very prosaic or very false, and this anticipates or thwarts the workings of the child's imagination.—No expedient could be more ingeniously contrived to make it dull, cold and barren. Let the images have what merit



they may, the mere fact that they are passively received, instead of being created and combined, is enough. The best pictures to children's books, therefore, are the rudest, which are merely suggestive. Pictures without text have a wholly different effect; there the child's imagination furnishes the story, as in the other it furnishes the forms. Otto Speckter's charming designs for "Puss in Boots" are fitted for adults, not for little children; they contain traits of wit and humor which cannot be appreciated without a knowledge of the world; such, for instance, as the opprobrious treatment which clearly awaits all dogs under the feline ascendancy, (as exemplified in the last plate)—a stroke of political satire which no child, one hopes, could enter into.

Our own language furnishes a boundless store of enticing and invigorating food. The immortal works of Bunyan and Defoe—those wells of pure, unadulterated English—have been the delight, the passion of many of the greatest and wisest men of the last generation. We have seen Shakespeare read and re-read by children of seven or eight years old with an intensity of interest and pleasure, very different in kind, no doubt, but equal in degree to any he could excite in the most learned and sagacious of his commentators.—What can be more likely to touch the young heart with a love of nature, a tender concern for all that feels, a sense of the wonder and beauty of creation, and the wisdom and love of its Creator, than that most charming and English of books, White's "History of Selbourne?" where the simplicity of the man is so exquisitely set off with the graces of the gentleman and the scholar, and so sanctified by those of the Christian. Where is the child's natural history book comparable to this? Why are such books as Anson's Voyages, and all the host of similar records of skill and intrepidity, to be altered and curtailed till they have lost all truth and vigor? The relations of travellers have each a characteristic stamp, which is not among their least interesting qualities; this is necessarily effaced in abridgments.

One great evil of professed children's books is their shortness. Children are now so accustomed to the stimulus of incessant variety, to turn from book to book and from subject to subject, that the power of steady and unforced application is daily becoming more rare. At a later age, when the necessities of life require it, this has to be painfully acquired, often to the destruction of health of body and mind. This was not the case when a child had to seek out his



amusement in folio histories or quarto travels, as Gothe tells us he did in Gottfried's Chronicle and the "Acessa Philologica." We remember hearing a woman of the last generation, whose intellectual qualities were only inferior to her moral, (if indeed we can separate what had the same stamp of energy, justness and greatness,) say, that the earliest book she remembered being interested in was Rapin's "History of England." Her sister, two or three years older than herself, read it to her aloud; it was their free unbidden choice. We imagine the two little girls seated on low stools, the elder with the huge folio on her knees, the younger in all the radiant beauty of a golden-haired English child, with her doll in her arms, listening with fixed attention, and day after day following the driest of historians through his ponderous work. Exquisite and true picture, which we commend to any painter who could conceive it! he will find no living models for it. In this case, not only an intellect and a character of the highest order were developed, but a style of writing and speaking, distinguished for vernacular purity, clearness and precision, was formed, by the mere access to a library composed of the classics of the English language. Nothing else came in her way. She was taught little (which, with an over-estimate of what she did not possess, she always unduly regretted,) nor was she either commanded or forbidden to read anything. She had much to do, and little external excitement; it was presumed that reading must be her pleasure, and her father possessed no trash. We have quoted an individual case, because we happen to know it intimately; but we have had an insight, less near, but still sufficient to corroborate this, into several others, especially among women. Nearly all those we have known who rose much above the average of their sex, had pretty nearly a similar training, or rather growth.

We shall be asked if then we pretend that no books should be written for children? Certainly not; for though we are convinced that the highest order of minds must be produced by this process of free internal development, yet there remains a vast middle class who are not capable of sufficient independent action to carry them through such a process.—These are the children whose imaginations are too feeble and inert to seize on half-understood images, to work on hints, to supply what their imperfect knowledge of facts leaves broken or defective. There are others whose reasoning faculty is too sluggish to delight in combining and inferring,

{the never-ceasing occupation of intelligent children,) or whose curiosity is not robust enough to endure the fatigue of much toil in search of sustenance. For such as these, it is necessary to clear away the difficulties which afford wholesome exercise to stronger minds,—to deal in simple, clear, direct narrative,—to give inferences and conclusions ready made,—to point out the *why* and the *because*. It is not that much will come of such a training; but the faculties, which would never struggle into life if left to themselves, may be nurtured, not into vigor, but at least into existence. What we protest against is the tyranny of prejudging the case, and subjecting all alike to a regimen fit only for the infirm. Let the robust choose their own diet. No test is required but the child's own inclination, provided always that wholesome food, *and no other*, is within his reach; if his faculties are of the kind capable of self-development, he will do the rest for himself.

Of course all this has not the smallest reference or application to the process of learning, properly so called, which is the appropriate labor and duty of childhood—the burden it ought to bear, and will bear, gallantly and well, if there is no attempt at tricks to disguise it. Toil is the portion of us all; this is *your* present lot of toil; in time it may, if you choose, bring you advantage and pleasure:—such is the language to hold to children, whom it is neither easy nor safe to mystify. School, or whatever be the substitute for it, is the appropriate sphere for the exercise of the attention and the memory—for compulsory application to uninviting things, and conformity to rules not understood; in short, for discipline—great and glorious nurse of *men*, whose godlike face a womanish and mistaken tenderness has sought to mask; not perceiving how easily unspoiled childhood learns to love her awful beauty and to trust in her truthful promises; while those of the flatterer, who talks to it of learning without labor, are felt to be false long before they are found to be destructive. School-books, therefore, can hardly be too special, nor school methods too rigorously calculated: all latitude or choice is misplaced here.

(*Concluded in the next number.*)

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If you would never have any enemies, never recognise any as such. Treat all as friends, and they will be compelled to treat you the same way.

## HISTORICAL BLUNDERS.

We often notice some blunders relating to America in foreign papers, or in the speeches or letters of European statesmen, and forthwith we all express our wonder, that foreigners will not take the pains to make themselves better acquainted with our history and institutions.

In Hickey's edition of the Constitution, published under the patronage of the Senate of the United States, and widely distributed, on page 399, occurs the following :

“ RHODE ISLAND.—Embraced under the charters of Massachusetts and continued under the same jurisdiction until July 8, 1662,” &c.

And this blunder has been repeated through two or three editions.

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APPOINTMENT OF SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.—At the last May session of the Legislature of Rhode Island, at Newport, Elisha R. Potter was appointed Commissioner of Public Schools by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

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MEMORANDA,

*For District Meetings, when a tax is to be assessed.*

If there is any doubt about the boundaries of the District, have them plainly defined by the School Committee.

Have the meeting notified for five days, and have the notice put up as required by section 30 of the law. The *object* of calling the meeting must be inserted in the notice, except in case of annual meetings.

Have the officers engaged. See sec. 62. Specify the amount of the tax, and the time when it shall be collected.

The district may give the collection to the collector already appointed, if there be one, or may appoint a special collector ; or may vote to have it collected by the town collector. See sec. 37.

If the District require bonds of the collector, or treasurer, they should fix the sum, and approve of the sureties.

They should agree with the collector for his fees. If no agreement, he will be entitled to five per cent.

They may impose a percentage on those who do not pay by a particular time. See pamphlet State laws, page 743, sec. 2.

The location of the house, the plan of the house, or repairs, and the amount of the tax, must be approved by the School Committee, if not already done.

As to Trustee assessing the tax, see sec. 45, and the Index to the law.

## TO DO UP MAPS.

Sponge the cotton or linen, stretch it out and tack it down smooth. Sponge the map on both sides. Make a thick flour paste with a little alum in it. Put this on the back of the map. In wetting the cloth and map, care should be taken to have it evenly wet, so that it will dry without rumpling.

When you put the map on the cloth, lay another piece of paper over it, and press it out smooth, beginning at the center. When dry, size it. The white of an egg will do. Or, take gum arabic, and one-third as much isinglass, and dissolve it in very hot water. Put it on with a brush. Then varnish the map with mastic varnish.

## INK.

*Prof. Webster's Receipt.*—Soak half a pound of nutgalls in three pints of rain water, three ounces of gum arabic in half a pint of warm rain water, three ounces of copperas in half a pint of warm rain water, let them stand forty-eight hours and then mix them.

This is very nearly the same with the receipt for "Exchequer Ink."

## NOTICES OF BOOKS.

**JAEGER'S ZOOLOGY.**—This is a little treatise on Zoology, by Prof. Jaeger, formerly of Princeton College, now residing in Providence. John H. Willard, Esq., Chairman of the School Committee of North Providence, says of it in his report—"A little work on Zoology, by Prof. Jaeger, of Providence, I highly esteem, and use as a kind of pastime to fill casual intervals. Its convenience for school use far surpasses any thing of the kind. Its style is easy and attractive, and above all, its terminology rendered into English"—D. Appleton & Co.

**COMSTOCK'S PHILOSOPHY.** Revised edition.

**COMSTOCK'S GEOLOGY.** These two popular works have been thoroughly revised, and the latter almost rewritten. Of the Philosophy, two editions have been published in Great Britain, and with high commendations. Very few school books on these topics have met with greater success. They are adapted to the present state of the sciences, and contain all the latest discoveries.—Pratt, Woodford & Co.

☞ **THE RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE** will be published monthly. All pamphlets, exchange papers, or communications, should be addressed to E. R. POTTER, Providence, R. I. Letters, (post paid) may be directed to Providence or Kingston. Terms, 50 cents per annum, in advance.



RHODE ISLAND

# EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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NO. 9.

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## CONSTRUCTION OF THE SCHOOL LAW.

The following decision in the case referred to below, will be found in the April number of our Magazine. The decision of the Supreme Court will be found in our June number.

### CASE OF SCHOOL DISTRICT No. 3, NORTH PROVIDENCE.

In the case of the appeal of the former Trustees of said District from a vote of the School Committee of the town, passed January 24, 1852, refusing to allow certain bills presented by said Trustees.

This case was stated and decided by the Commissioner on March 23, 1852, and an order directed to the Town Treasurer of North Providence, for the payment of the bills.

The Supreme Court subsequently decided that said order was illegal, and that the decision should have been certified to the School Committee, for them to carry into effect.

On the 5th of June, 1852, a notice was issued to the School Committee to show cause why an order should not be made for them to carry into effect said decision; and on the 12th of June, Messrs. Sisson and Willard, on behalf of said Committee, appeared and asked for a further hearing in the case, which was allowed—the old Trustees objecting to the right to allow said rehearing.

The Committee contend that the certificate of Cole, though general in its form, was by their practice limited to a grammar school, and that this practice was generally understood; that the sub-com-

mittee had power to annul a certificate ; that their letter did annul it, and that the whole committee subsequently approved it.

The other facts, points of law and arguments, are fully stated in the former decision.

On further consideration, I am of opinion that all the points of law before stated and decided, were rightly decided ; and further, that the Commissioner has a right to allow a rehearing for good cause, in his discretion ;—but so much of said decision as allows the bill of Miss Smith, is reconsidered and reversed, it not being in the power of the Commissioner to dispense with the teachers' having a legal certificate.

And so much of said decision as relates to the bill of said Cole, is hereby confirmed, and the School Committee of said town are hereby requested to draw an order on the town treasurer of said town for the payment thereof, being forty-eight dollars and twelve cents, to said Cole—or in case of said former trustees having paid the same to said Cole, then to said trustees.

E R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools.

Approved—RICHARD W. GREENE, C. J. S. Court.

August 14, 1852.

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From the British and Foreign Review.

1. Stories of the Gods and Heroes of Greece, told by Berthold Niebuhr to his Son. Translated from the German. Edited by Sarah Austin. J. W. Parker, London, 1843.
2. The Home Treasury. Edited by Felix Summerly. London : J. Cundall, 1843.
3. Puss in Boots. Illustrated by Otto Speckter. London : J. Murray, 1843.

[Concluded from page 323.]

By children's books are generally meant books which children voluntarily read, and to those our observations are confined. We perceive with pleasure, that a reaction is taking place in favor of the only class of books which we admit to be *necessarily* appropriate to children—we mean fairy tales, or to borrow from the German the more comprehensive word for wonderful stories and legends—*Marchen*. The series of little books included under the title of "The Home Treasury," which appears at the head of this article, is one indication of this change, and provides well and usefully for a demand which is rapidly increasing. The tales that have hitherto appeared, are edited with good taste and judgment, and are ren-

dered in every way attractive to the eye ; their real charm is, however, deeper and far more valuable. The announcement of this series will explain its intention ; in its general spirit we entirely agree—how far we may differ, with respect to the value of illustrations, will appear from our previous remarks.

“The character of most children’s books published during the last quarter of a century, is fairly typified in the name of Peter Parley, which the writers of some hundreds of them have assumed. The books themselves have been addressed, after a narrow fashion, almost entirely to the cultivation of the understanding of children. The many tales sung or said from time immemorial, which appealed to the other, and certainly not less important, elements of a little child’s mind, its fancy, imagination, sympathies, affections, are almost all gone out of memory, and are scarcely to be obtained. ‘Little Red Riding Hood,’ and other fairy tales hallowed to children’s use, are now turned into ribaldry as satires for men ; as for the creation of a new fairy tale or touching ballad, such a thing is unheard of. That the influence of all this is hurtful to children, the conductor of this series firmly believes. He has practical experience of it every day in his own family, and he doubts not that there are many others who entertain the same opinions as himself. He proposes at least to give some evidence of his belief, and to produce a series of works, the character of which may be briefly described as anti-Peter-Parleyism. Some will be new works, some new combinations of old materials, and some reprints, carefully cleared of impurities, without deterioration to the points of the story. All will be illustrated, but not after the usual fashion of children’s books, in which it seems to be assumed that the lowest kind of art is good enough to give first impressions to a child. In the present series, though the statement may perhaps excite a smile, the illustrations will be selected from the works of Raffaele, Titian, Hans, Holbein, and other old masters. Some of the best modern artists have kindly promised their aid in creating a taste for beauty in little children.”

Let no one imagine we consider it a matter of pride or congratulation, that fairy tales lose their magic power over the mature man. On the contrary, it is because it is the exclusive prerogative, the divine gift of childhood, wholly to enjoy and half to believe these delightful fictions, that we shall ever condemn the presumptuous rebellion against nature, which the withholding of them supposes. We look upon children who have been deprived of this poetry of infancy as defrauded not only of an immense pleasure, never to be regained, but of one important part of their internal development, which, if checked in its natural season, is destroyed forever. The idea that

children will, in the face of their daily experience, continue to believe in talking birds and flying dragons, in giants that eat little boys, or fairies that change mice into footmen, is too absurd to be answered ; there is not the smallest danger of the kind. But there is a danger that children brought up to imagine they know what is true, and to have no sympathy with the invisible, should end by feeling nothing and believing nothing but objects of sense.

We do not find in fairy tales the smallest danger of injury to the reasoning faculty, the paramount importance of which we fully acknowledge. The inductive faculty, so far from being weak, is peculiarly strong in childhood ;—why ?—because their learning and experience enables them to judge of the truth or falsehood of the data on which they reason ? Not a whit ; they *know* nothing of the kind ; they may be told this or that, but all the phenomena of nature are new to them, and may, for aught they know, be new to the world—that is supernatural. The clearness and precision of their inferences arise wholly from other causes. They have no interest and prejudice—no favor and no false shame ; in their natural state they go straight on to a consequence, with a fearless justness which we have often admired—admired with a melancholy feeling that it could not last. It is the world and its vile realities, its interests and its constraints, and not fairy tales, that stunt and distort the noblest of all our faculties. The robbing us of the one next to it in dignity—imagination—will not help us.

We reluctantly notice an objection, which will probably be made, to permitting children to read books written for men ; we mean on the score of what is called their impropriety.—There is little use in reasoning with persons who believe that virtue is to be secured by enfeebling the mind and character, or whose powers of observation and deduction are so small as to render them inaccessible to evidence. Those who have duly reflected on the nature of a child's mind, on the subjects which are fitted to excite its interest, and to which alone it can, by its organization and the range of its experience, be awake, will need no evidence, indeed, to convince them that these timorous and misplaced precautions are not only useless, but pernicious ;—useless, inasmuch as a young child in its natural state is utterly unconscious of, and indifferent to, the class of subjects which are supposed by its elders, (from their own lamentable self-knowledge,) to have such dangerous attractions for it ; and pernicious, because the whole force of that attraction, whatever it be, is thus reserved for the moment at which it is really felt, and consequently really dangerous. It will not be pretended, that, as far as boys are concerned, it is



possible by external precautions, to defer free converse with books longer. The period of emancipation from the restraints of childhood must leave a young man to the guidance of his own taste, reason and conscience, in the choice of his reading; and wo to him if he has no better safeguard than the entire novelty of every coarse expression or equivocal allusion!

With regard to the other sex, the same impossibility does not exist. A careful mother may prolong indefinitely the vigilant *surveillance* of her daughter's reading, and we are assured that in France this is actually the case. Up to the time of their marriage, when this and other restrictions, drop at once, young ladies not only read no novels, (a privation upon which we sincerely congratulate them,) but no books except those supposed to be expressly fitted for their age and sex. Whether the result is, on a comparison with the greater latitude allowed in this and other respects in English girls, unfavorable to the purity of mind and conduct of the latter, we leave it to our readers to determine. Without pretending to judge a question on which far too many hasty and unfair decisions are pronounced on every side, we shall only venture to express our conviction, that in simplicity and purity of heart and life, and in devotion to domestic duties, the women of England—especially those whose understandings have been early schooled and fortified by intercourse with the great and wise—are at least not inferior to any who have ever entered on the perplexing realities of life, from the walls of a convent, or encountered its temptations with the ignorance and inexperience of a babe.

It would seem superfluous to repeat that we mean, and can mean, no such absurdity as that *all* books are fit for children; but we know the unfairness with which opinions are distorted, and we therefore say again, that we take for granted that the books open to their choice would be only such as have the tendency common to all the highest flights and exercises of human genius and human reason—namely, to make us sensible of our position on earth and our kindred with heaven, and to excite in us the earnest purpose and the humble hope so to think, to feel, and to live, as not to belie our high calling. With such aspirations, religion in its purest and sublimest form—the religion of Him whose life was the clear and perfect manifestation of the Godlike—naturally allies itself, and is, indeed, inseparable from them; for when the soul of man has reached its utmost strength and elevation, it can find employment and rest only in the Divine.

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Learning is obtained only by labor; it cannot be bought with money—if it could, the rich would always be intelligent.

For the Rhode Island Educational Magazine.

## EXPENSES OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In the Report on the System of Popular Education in the city of New York, is contained a table showing the expenses of the system of public instruction in the principal cities of the United States. From that table it appears that whether as a basis of estimate and comparison, general population, valuation of real and personal property, educational population, registered attendance in the common schools, or the average daily attendance in the same, both the aggregate annual expense, and the expense of each scholar under the present system of popular education, is relatively less than the same in almost every other city in the Union. In Boston the ratio of aggregate annual expense is two-thirds greater than in New York. In Rhode Island no means of deciding this question are at hand; but, as a general rule in this matter of education, the smallest amount of expenditure for each scholar, and for other educational purposes, will receive the greatest amount of praise; if she could *only* stand number one in a proportionate ratio, how gratified will those interested in the cause of education feel! Now this is *not* the correct notion. Instead of attempting to reduce the necessary expenditures to the least possible sum consistent with a decent appearance, and then boasting—as in this New York exhibit—of superior skill in making the *least* money pay the *most* persons, the boast should be on the other side of the question,—that the most money has been expended with a liberal economy, in furthering the interests of a cause, which may be truly said to be at the bottom of all the prosperity and security of all other causes, religion, even, not excepted.

Not how *much*, or how *little*, but how *well* do we expend money for school purposes, ought to be the question. The Secretary of Education in Massachusetts, furnishes in his annual reports, a table of the comparative expenditure of each town in that State, for school purposes, in which, Boston does *not* hold the first rank—a fact creditable to the smaller places. Will not our State Commissioner give a similar table in his next report, and thereby enable all interested—and who is not so?—to decide upon the comparative merit of different towns in respect to expenses of education? It is to be hoped that this ratio of the smallest sum for the greatest number of school purposes, will become as it should, an “obsolete idea.” A *large* sum and *economical* expenditure, is the more correct notion. T.

## AN ADDRESS TO THOSE WHO HAVE THE CARE OF CHILDREN.

The following excellent Address, is issued as a Tract by the Society of Friends. It was sent to us by Thomas R. Hazard, Esq., of Portsmouth.

Those who teach others, must first learn to subdue their own passions. Education is the correcting of fallen nature; and he who hath not, by God's grace, subdued his own, is not yet fit to correct others.

The principal part of education is, to instil into tender minds the love of God and virtue; and as we learn best from those we love most, the first step to be taken in education is, to make ourselves loved. Let all instruction then be given cheerfully, kindly, tenderly, mildly, lest by our defects we prejudice those we should instruct against what we teach them; show children in a lively and good-humored manner that you advise them for their own sakes, and not to satisfy your humor, which will never mend theirs; that you correct them with regret, and encourage them with pleasure. Do not suppose that they are always inattentive through design; some have slow parts, and most are giddy. Children are generally clear-sighted enough to discern whether you or they are in fault; would you mend theirs, you must be patient; and perhaps discernment and tenderness are as much wanted in teachers, as docility and attention in scholars. All things are easy to those who know them; nothing so to those who do not. We were once scholars, and perhaps as dull and perverse as those we teach; but suppose you should suddenly gain your point by severity, and lose their hearts; in that case is not every thing lost? Will they not, like bent bows, return with greater violence to their former inclinations, when the restraint of a few months or years are over? But when the head is convinced, and the heart gained, the work in most cases, is done forever.

If children come to you from harsh parents, and you are gentle and good natured to them, they will love you, and all you teach for your sake. If from tender parents, and you are harsh, they will hate you, and every thing you teach them — The more defects you show, the fewer can you correct; to be masters of others, we must be so of ourselves. Let them experience, that a meek and quiet spirit is of great price; teach them all virtue by example; your wisdom must be from above, first pure, then gentle, easy to be entreated, full of mercy and good works, without partiality, without hypocrisy. Inculcate, that to be honorable, they must be useful; that no employment is mean that is of use; set before them our Lord's ex-

ample, who washed his apostles' feet, and commanded us to do the same to each other.

Teach them that it is more honorable as well as more blessed, to give than to receive; and that in order to this we must be frugal, even in the highest stations and fortunes. Ease, affluence, generosity, justice, and charity, are the lovely offspring of this humble virtue; as want, anxiety, injustice, avarice, and hardness of heart, are the necessary consequences of careless prodigality. The mind of a prodigal resembles his mansion, where the vain glitter concludes in an habitation for beggars and owls; but the person who with order and skill conducts his affairs, like the sun, blesses all within his influence, and himself is not impoverished thereby. Never show a fondness for beauty, finery, fortune, titles, or any vanity before them; teach them to be discreet; show an abhorrence to the least instance of insincerity. Children will be insincere, if not permitted to speak their minds freely. Let lies, malice, anger, envy, falsehood, and ill nature, never escape punishment, which never should be inflicted by passionate expressions or blows, and seldom by whippings, as these may be construed to proceed from passion; for the former, they will blame you—for the latter, themselves. Children should be dealt with as we would be dealt by. We wish that our lives may be made agreeable, that our inclinations may be consulted, as far as it is consistent with our interest; but it is no trifling matter whether you gain or lose their hearts.

Give children a taste for reading; and then, by laying good books in their way, they educate themselves. Let their works and studies be for use, not for parade. Fear not to lose respect by familiarity; respect follows esteem and love, and not constraint. You can only cure their faults by knowing them; you can only know them by familiarity with them. Encourage them to confide in you. Be not startled at their faults, or they will not show them to you. We only open our hearts to those we love, and none but such can mend them. Permit the children entrusted to your care, to be as little as possible out of your sight and hearing, as they will hurt each other if they are; for children left to themselves, even in play, will catch each other's faults. All that has been recommended, is consistent with the most steady and regular conduct; for steady and regular you must be, or you do nothing. Make the children do as much as possible for themselves. Encourage them to keep their persons perfectly neat; use them to assist each other; be not severe for trifles; subdue in them, by God's grace, every instance of pride and vanity; let the proud child submit to the lowest employment in all things; teach them to speak low and slow; fashion them to a grace-



ful gesture, carriage and gait ; and make them polite ; the foundation of good breeding is charity and humility ; not to offend or assume, and a desire to please, is good breeding.

With these, an easy, natural, modest behaviour is more agreeable, than what is called a pretty manner, for nothing affected can please. Forget the teacher, and be their companion ; at the school hours, your instructions will enough remind them that you are their master, and that is sufficient. Tire them not with reading ; make them sometimes leave off when they have an inclination to proceed. Reflect how great will be your reward for the exact discharge of your duties. As you educate these children, they will likely educate theirs, and so on until time shall be no more ; and if you thus turn many to righteousness, you will shine as the stars forever, for so doing ; and when the great Shepherd shall appear, you, with other shepherds, will receive a bright crown, which fadeth not away, reserved in heaven for your labor of love ; therefore, serve as to the Lord, and not to men ; think not of your pensions and perquisites, so much, as that the most important, the most honorable of all employments, is committed to your care, the forming the minds of the next generation. Avoid (as far as in you lies,) all the faults of this, by endeavoring that those under your care may become blessings to the world in every station of life, and bright angels to all eternity.

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### NEVER TOO OLD TO LEARN.

The following well authenticated facts will illustrate the principle that *man is never too old to learn*.

Socrates, at an extreme old age, learnt to play on musical instruments. This would look ridiculous for some of the rich old men in our city, especially if they should take it into their heads to thrum a guitar under a lady's window, which Socrates did not do, but only learnt to play upon some instrument of his time, not a guitar, for the purpose of resisting the wear and tear of old age.

Cato, at eighty years of age, thought proper to learn the Greek language. Many of our young men at thirty and forty, have forgotten even the alphabet of a language, the knowledge of which was necessary to enter college, and which was a daily exercise through college. A fine comment upon love of letters, truly.

Plutarch, when between seventy and eighty, commenced the study of the Latin. Many of our young lawyers, not thirty years of age, think that *nisi prius, fieri facias, &c.*, are English expressions ; and if you tell them that a knowledge of the Latin would make them appear a little more respecta-

ble in their profession, they would reply that they are *too old* to think of learning Latin.

Boccacio was thirty-five years of age when he commenced his studies in polite literature. Yet he became one of the three great masters of the Tuscan dialect, Dante and Petrarch being the other two. There are many among us ten years younger than Boccacio, who are dying of *ennui*, and regret that they were not educated to a taste for literature, but now they are *too old*.

Sir Henry Spelman neglected the sciences in his youth, but commenced the study of them when he was between fifty and sixty years of age. After this time he became the most learned antiquarian and lawyer. Our young men begin to think of laying their seniors on the shelf when they have reached sixty years of age. How different the present estimate put upon experience from that which characterized a certain period of the Grecian republic, when a man was not allowed to open his mouth in cases of political meetings, who was under forty years of age.

Colbert, the famous French Minister, at sixty years of age, returned to his Latin and law studies. How many of our college-learnt men have ever looked into their classics since their graduation?

Dr. Johnson applied himself to the Dutch language but a few years before his death. Most of our merchants and lawyers of twenty-five, thirty, and forty years of age, are obliged to apply to a teacher to translate a business letter written in the French language, which might be learnt in the tenth part of the time required for the study of the Dutch; and all because they are *too old to learn*.

Ludovico Monaldesco, at the great age of one hundred and fifteen, wrote the memoirs of his own times, a singular exertion, noticed by Voltaire, who was himself one of the most remarkable instances of the progress of the age in new studies.

Ogilby, the translator of Homer and Virgil, was unacquainted with Latin and Greek till he was past fifty.

Franklin did not fully commence his philosophical pursuits till he had reached his fiftieth year. How many among us of thirty, forty and fifty, who read nothing but newspapers, for the want of a taste for natural philosophy? But they are *too old to learn*.

Accorso, a great lawyer, being asked why he began the study of law so late, answered, that indeed he began it late, but that he should, therefore, master it the sooner. This agrees with our theory, that healthy old age gives a man the power of accomplishing a difficult study in much less time than would be necessary to one of half his years.

Dryden, in his sixty-eighth year, commenced the translation of the *Iliad* ; and his most pleasing productions were written in his old age.

We could go on and cite thousands of examples of men who commenced a new study, and struck out into an entirely new pursuit, either for a livelihood or amusement, at an advanced age. But every one familiar with the biography of distinguished men, will recollect individual cases enough to convince him that none but sick and indolent will say, *I am too old to study.*

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#### HOW TO RENDER ASSISTANCE IN ACCIDENTS.

In case of a fractured or dislocated limb, let the sufferer lie on the ground until a couch, door, gate or plank can be procured, place the door or gate alongside of him, cover it with something soft, and let men convey him steadily home, but do not put him into a vehicle of any kind. In Fits, if a person fall in one, let him remain on the ground, providing his face be pale ; for should it be fainting or temporary suspension of the heart's action, you may cause death by raising him upright, or by bleeding ; but if the face be red, or dark colored, raise him on his seat, throw cold water on his head immediately, and send for a surgeon and get a vein opened, or fatal pressure on the brain may ensue. In hanging or drowning, expose the chest as quickly as possible, and throw ice-water over it, whilst the body is kept in a sitting posture. In case of children in convulsions, deluge the head with cold water, and put the feet into warm water, till medical aid can be procured. In case of poison, give an emetic of a teaspoonful of mustard flour in a teaspoonful of warm water, every ten minutes, till vomiting ensues or medical assistance is obtained. In case of burns and scalds, let the burnt part be bathed in a mixture of turpentine and olive oil, equal parts, till the pain abates ; then dress it with common cerate, and defend it from the air.

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"Ma," said an inquisitive little girl, "will the rich and poor people live together when they go up to Heaven?"

"Yes, my dear, they will all be alike there."

"Then, ma, why don't rich and poor Christians associate together?"

"Sally had better put you to bed, my love,—you are getting sleepy."

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It were well if old age were truly second childhood ; it is seldom more like it than the berry is to the rose-bud.

## RHODE ISLAND NORMAL SCHOOL.

We took occasion, in the Annual Report made to the Legislature last January session, (see the February number of this Magazine,) to give our views on the subject of a Normal School. Many of the so called Normal Schools in our country, have degenerated into mere free academies.

We have now the pleasure of announcing to the teachers of the State, that arrangements are making for commencing a Normal School at Providence, in the beginning of November next. The following extract of a letter from Prof. Greene, will give the outline of the plan :—

“The Rhode Island Normal School for ladies and gentlemen, will be opened in the ante-rooms of the Universalist Church, Broad-st., Providence, on Monday, the 1st day of November next, at 9 o'clock, A. M. Instruction will be given in the theory and practice of teaching, in arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, analysis and construction of the English language, rhetoric, elocution, the art of reading, penmanship, spelling, and the best modes of managing and governing a school. The lectures and drill exercises in the above branches, are to be conducted by the following gentlemen :—Samuel S. Greene, Professor of Didactics in Brown University; Prof. William Russell, of the Merrimack Normal Institute, and Dana P. Colburn, Esq., late of the Bridgewater Normal School. Others are expected to assist in some of the departments,—among whom are Professors Chace and Guyot. It is expected that the members of the School will be permitted to attend courses of lectures at the University, especially on Chemistry and Physiology. They will also have access to the large and valuable library of the University.”

The details of the plan will be hereafter announced. From conversations with Prof. Russell and Prof. Greene, we think the proposed institution will come nearer to our idea of what a Normal School should be, than any Normal School in the country.

The course will continue until April. It is desirable that the members should continue through the whole term, but provision will be made for those who cannot attend through the entire course. The charge for instruction will be moderate, but has not yet been fixed. Board can be obtained in different parts of the city, on reasonable terms.

Teachers' Institutes will be held this fall at the usual time. More particular notice will be given in the next number.



## STEWART'S WASHINGTON.

The State of Rhode Island is fortunate in possessing two portraits of Washington, by Stewart; one of which is in the State House at Providence, and the other in the State House at Newport. We extract the following notice of one of Stewart's portraits from the Literary World. Whether the portraits painted for his native State, were copied from the one here referred to, we do not know.

"George W. P. Custis, Esq., commenting on an engraving, recently issued by G. W. Childs, of Philadelphia, recites the history of the original.

"The history of the painting is simply this; it was painted for Mrs. Washington. After the sittings for the picture for the Marquis of Lansdowne, the chief declared he would sit no more for any one. Mrs. Washington, desirous of having an original, by Stewart, to place among the family pictures at Mount Vernon, entreated the chief to sit once more for her, Stuart being desirous of painting another original with a view to some improvements. The bargain was concluded; Stuart was to make certain copies, and then the last original was to have been handed over to Mrs. Washington. On the death of the chief, Mrs. Washington applied for the picture, both by letter and through the good offices of gentlemen then near the residence of the artist. On the death of the venerable lady she bequeathed all the family pictures to me: I wrote to Stewart and offered a price to be paid for the original, although it was to have been the property of Mrs. Washington, 'without money and without price.' All efforts of all parties failed. Stuart died, and the original, that should have been mine, was sold by his heirs to the Boston Athenæum."

The Literary World is a journal published in New York, specially devoted to giving the earliest information of new publications, and of every thing of importance in the world of literature and art. We recommend it to all who are desirous of keeping up with the times. Its miscellaneous articles are always interesting.

By the way, we very often see Gilbert Stewart mentioned as a native of Newport. He was born in South Kingstown. See Updike's History of the Narragansett Church. The name should be *Stewart*, not *Stuart*.

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A learned author, while talking to an accomplished and beautiful woman, held her hand between his during the conversation; when he let it go, one of the company exclaimed, "That was the *finest work* that ever came out of your hands."

## KEEP HIM OUT.

"What noise is that?" said a judge, disturbed in the hearing of a case.

"It's a man, my lord," was the answer of the door-keeper.

"What does he want?"

"He wants to get in, my lord."

"Well, keep him out."

The audience are comfortably seated; the case is going forward; to make room for the new comer, some must shift their seats; and perhaps be jostled about a little; so they are all perfectly satisfied with the judge's dictum "Keep him out!"

You have, yourself, been in an omnibus when a stout passenger has presented himself to the conductor, and petitioned for a place. You are all snugly seated—why should you be disturbed? "The seats are all full!" "Keep him out!" But, the intruder is in, he presses forward to the inner corner, perhaps treading upon some testy gentleman's toes. How you hate that new comer, until you get fairly "shook down," and settled in your places? The door opens again,—another passenger! "Keep him out!" cried the company, and strange to say, the loudest vociferator of the whole, is the very passenger who last came in. He in his turn becomes conversant, after having fairly got a place inside.

It is the same through life. There is a knocking from time to time at the door of the constitution.

"What's the noise?" ask the men in power.

"It's a lot of men, my lords and gentlemen."

"What do they want?"

"They want to come in."

"Well, keep them out!"

And those who are comfortably seated within the gate, re-echo the cry of "Keep them out." Why should they be disturbed in their seats, and made uncomfortable?

But somehow by dint of loud-knocking, the men, or a rush of them, at length do contrive to get in; and after sundry shoving and jostlings, they get seated, and begin to get comfortable, when there is another knocking louder than before. Would you believe it? the last accommodated are now the most eager of all to keep the doors closed against the new comers; and "Keep them out!" is their vociferous cry.

Here is a batch of learned men debating the good of their order. They are considering how their profession may be advanced. What is the gist of their decisions?—the enactment of laws against all intruders upon their comfort and quiet. They make their calling a snug monopoly and contrive matters so that as few as possible are admitted to share the

good things of their class. "Keep them out!" is the cry of all the learned professions.

"Keep them out!" cry the apothecaries, when a surgeon from beyond the Tweed or the Irish Channel claims to prescribe and dispense medicine to English subjects. "Keep them out!" cry the doctors, when the homeœpathists offer the public their millioneth-grain doses. "Keep them out!" cry physicians, and surgeons, and apothecaries, of all ranks, when it is proposed, as in America, to throw open the profession to the female sex.

But you find the same cry among the working classes of every grade. Mechanics and tradesmen insist on all applicants for admission to their calling, serving long apprenticeships. If the apprenticeships are not served, then "Keep them out!" is the word. Shoulder to shoulder, they exclude the applicants for leave to toil. "Knob-sticks" are pelted.

They must join the union—must be free of the craft—must conform to the rules—subscribe to the funds—pay the footings, and so on; otherwise they are kept out with a vengeance.

In the circles of fashion the same cry is frequent. A new man appears in society, "Who is he?" "Only so and so!" He is a retired grocer, or as Cobbet called Sadler, "a linen draper;" and the exclusive class immediately club together to "Keep him out!" He is "cut." Even the new man of high sounding title is accounted as nothing among the old families who boast of their "blue blood." Wealth goes a great way, but still that does not compensate for the accident of birth and connections among these classes.—*South Boston Gazette*.

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The History of the World is the history of trade and commerce. Your very apparel is a dictionary. They tell us of the "bayonet," that it was first made at Bayonne—"cambrics," that they came from Cambray—"damask," from Damascus—"assas," from a city of the same name—"cordwine," or "cordova," from Cordova—"currants," from Corinth—the "guinea" that it was originally coined of gold brought from the African coast so called—"camlet," that it was woven, at least in part, of camel's hair. Such has been the manufacturing progress, that we now and then send calicoes and muslins to India and the East; and yet the words give standing witness that we once imported them thence, for "calico" is from Calcut, and "muslin" from Mousul, a city in Asiatic Turkey.

**HUMILITY.**—The whole Roman language, says Wesley, even with all the improvements of the Augustan age, does not afford so much as a name for humility. The word from which we borrow this, as is well known having in Latin a quite different meaning ; no, nor was it found in all the copious language of the Greeks, till it was *made* by the Great Apostle.

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**MATERNAL INFLUENCE.**—"I believe," said John Randolph, "I should have been swept away by the flood of French infidelity, if it had not been for one thing, the remembrance of the time when my sainted mother used to make me kneel by her bedside, taking my little hands folded in hers, and causing me to repeat the Lord's prayer."

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**TRUE AND FALSE PLEASURE.**—"All pleasure," says John Foster, "must be bought at the expense of pain ; the difference between false pleasure and true, is just this ; for the *true*, the price is paid before you enjoy it ; for the *false*, afterwards."

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"How admirably," says Racine, "is the simplicity of the Evangelists," they never speak injuriously of the enemies of Jesus Christ, of his judge or his executioners. They report the fact without a single reflection. They comment neither on their master's mildness when he was smitten, nor on his constancy in the hour of his ignominious death, which they thus describe: "And they crucified Jesus."

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### COUNTY INSPECTORS.

The following gentlemen are appointed County Inspectors for the county of Providence, viz. :


JOHN H. WILLARD, of Pawtucket.

JOHN B. TALLMAN, of Central Falls.

Rev. ORIN F. OTIS, of Chepachet.

Rev. JOHN BOYDEN, Jr., of Woonsocket.

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From the Pennsylvania Journal of Prison Discipline and Philanthropy.

## JUVENILE DELINQUENCY.

Among the various subjects embraced in the enquiries of the late Parliamentary committee, was that of juvenile delinquency, respecting which they say, (very safely,) "That a larger amount of industrial training and reformatory discipline may advantageously be adopted in their case than in that of ordinary criminals." Page vi.

That juvenile crime has increased in a ratio far greater than population or adult crime there could be no doubt—and one chief cause was believed to be, that a vast number of acts were made criminal by various acts of parliament, and punishable by fine or short terms of imprisonment. These offences are mostly within the range of idle and mischievous boys and youth, and as the culprits cannot pay in purse they pay in person. "The mind of the child thus becomes familiarized with a gaol. A prison is at once disarmed of its terrors and its shame. In a gaol the novice in crime gets acquainted with the hardened in guilt; he finds himself the object of commiseration; he finds that he is better clothed, better fed, better housed and better cared for within its walls, than in the habitation of his parents or the workhouse of his parish; hence petty delinquencies become the prelude to the gravest crimes, and the child, acclimated to the atmosphere of a gaol, grows up to manhood, disabled from gaining an honest living by having had the brand of crime stamped upon his forehead, and he so remains, perhaps, for years, a continual burden to the State, until his education is finished in some first class

penitentiary, at an expense of some \$150 or \$200, preparatory to his transportation from his native land at a further cost of the like sum.

"If, when this child was first charged with violating the law, or was first found in destitution on the threshold of crime, he had been placed in a reformatory establishment, surrounded with means and appliances for mental, moral, religious and industrial training, instead of costing his country, in loss by plunder and in expense of prosecutions, imprisonment, and transportation, from \$500 to \$750, he would, for one-third of that price, have been rendered a useful and valuable member of society, either at home or in any one of our colonies to which, as a free emigrant, after proper training, he might be willing to be transferred.

To carry out this object, in a cheap and efficient manner, it is proposed to establish national asylums, in which all children, of both sexes, however numerous, may be received, and where they may be classified according to their sex, age, and strength, as well as their past pursuits and associations: and where they may, from time to time, be re-arranged according to their conduct, character, and attainments, and according to their intended vocation in after-life.

These establishments, it is intended to place under the supervision of government inspectors and boards of magistrates, on the line of the great trunk railroads, by which children could be transmitted safely, cheaply, and expeditiously to and from different parts of the kingdom. Out-door labor is to be united with mental and religious education, and with instruction in mechanical employment. The length of their continuance in the asylum is not to be determined by a sentence of years or months, but by good conduct, industrious habits, and proficiency in some industrial pursuit, which will distinguish the inmates as fit for apprenticeship in this country, or the colonies, or to enter as volunteers in the naval or military service, as may best suit their taste and inclination.

The costs of these establishments, the committee say, would be very inconsiderable when compared with the enormous sums which, in one form or another, these wasters, these destroyers of property, now entail upon some portions of the community. Children taken into the asylum before they are confirmed in evil habits, or hardened in criminal pursuits, may be easily controlled, trained, and instructed and may, to a considerable extent, be made productive, if stimulated by a prospect of reward, to engage in useful and profitable labor suitable to their age, strength, and disposition. "The expense of

the juvenile prison at Parkhurst\* affords no means of comparison as to the cost of such an establishment as is here proposed, or as to its influence upon the character of its inmates, or its effects upon the interests of society at large. Upon the excellent managers of Parkhurst devolves the difficult and all but hopeless task of controlling and correcting the inmates, who, although young in years, are old in crime, and who, bearing about them the brand of convicted felons, are insensible to those incentives to industry and good conduct which, with an untainted character, the prospect of future success, in a useful and honorable calling, could scarcely fail to inspire in the youth of the proposed asylum."

The cost of clothing and feeding the inmates of the proposed reform schools would be borne by the children's parents or their parishes; by those who, by the laws of God and man, are now bound to provide them as destitute children with shelter, and with food and clothes.

It is a notorious fact, say the committee, that immoral and dishonest parents encourage their children to commit crime; negligent and thoughtless parents permit their misconduct; selfish and unnatural parents leave them in a state of destitution, which they know must infallibly lead to starvation or thieving; and even parochial authorities, by their neglect of parentless and friendless children, though they may close their eyes against the consequences of their neglect, do, in fact, contribute to the same result. Both parents and parishes know that they are by law bound to provide for children in a state of destitution; the child has, however, only to add crime to destitution—has only to join the criminal classes—and the trouble of its future government, and the expense of its future maintenance is, as the law now stands, transferred at once from the parent and the parish to the county and the State.

To effect these great objects, it is proposed to enact, that "all children under a given age, say sixteen years, found violating the law, or in a state of destitution, which will inevitably lead to crime, shall be taken before the magistrate, and instead of being committed, as is now the case, to a criminal prison, they shall be sent to the proposed asylum; and the parents (and failing the parents' ability, the parishes to which they belong) shall pay the dry expenses of diet and clothing; say two shillings or three shillings per week, as the case may

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\* The annual expense of Parkhurst establishment for young convicts amounts to 25l. 6s. 11d. each inmate: more than sufficient to provide them with a boarding-school education; and more than the wages on which the greater portion of the agricultural laborers have to support a whole family.

be. The effects of such a legal enactment would be, that parents and parochial authorities would exert themselves to control, educate, and obtain employment for those for whom they are bound by law to provide; and if they failed to do this, parishes and parents would have no right to complain, that, having neglected to perform their duty, the State should interpose and do their duty for them. Parishes and parents will have no right to complain if the State places itself in *loco parentis* for the purpose of making those happy and useful who would otherwise be wretched and useless members of Society, charging the parent or the parish with the expense of their support; an expense which has hitherto been thrown most unjustly upon the county rates, or has been defrayed out of the fund raised from the taxation of the nation at large."

It was probably in consequence of these views, which had been presented to the City Solicitor of London, to a popular meeting, held in October, 1841, as a "plan for checking the growth of juvenile crime and providing for the mental, moral, religious and industrial training of destitute youth in the metropolis, and other large cities and towns," that one of the Parliamentary committee suggested the following resolutions:—

"1. That the witnesses examined by this committee as to the effects of the present systems of prison discipline on the class commonly designated as juvenile offenders, unanimously confirm the opinion which might be formed from their increasing numbers and frequent recommitments—that imprisonment as now practiced, has little salutary operation on their characters and actions.

"2. That the corrective treatment of children and very young persons should naturally and justly be different from that inflicted on adult and fully responsible criminals, and that the places of confinement and restraint to which such young offenders are transferred should be rather of the nature of penal and industrial schools than of ordinary prisons.

"3. This committee, therefore, recommends that district schools of this character should be established with as little delay as possible, and that, the discipline of such schools being distinctly reformatory, the locality should if possible be separate from that of the prison, and that the superintending officers be specially appointed for the service of such school.

"4 That it is the opinion of this committee, that no child under nine years of age should be regarded as accountable for any act of felony or misdemeanor.

"5. That in cases where there is reason to believe, that a child on being dismissed from such a penal school would be in great danger of falling back into habits of crime, this committee would recommend that legal powers of detention for a given period beyond that



to which the child is sentenced, should be given to the visiting magistrates, with the consent of the Secretary of State.

"6. That the parents or parent of any child sent to one of these penal schools should be, as far as possible compelled to contribute to the support and education of the said child, and that the fines now leviable on juvenile criminals by summary jurisdiction, should be recoverable from their parents or parent."

It appears the committee were not prepared to take such a definite position as these resolutions contemplate, and only agreed to the non-committal minute which we have quoted above.

We are satisfied that a much more comprehensive view needs to be taken of the subject of juvenile training as a preventive, than has hitherto met our eye. We may perhaps, venture at some future time to present it.

"The experiment has never been tried," says an intelligent British magistrate, "of a State provision, *for innocent but destitute and unprotected children*, nor of any compulsory payment from the parent for *the proper maintenance and education of his child*. We must not be told therefore of Refuges and Magdalens, and Schools of Industry, and Philanthropic Societies, and provisions for poor criminals on their release from prison, or of any results which have followed on their adoption, as reasons why a new plan for rescuing the young, not from criminal causes or associations, but from the idleness and neglect which will lead to them, should not be tried.— They are no examples for this purpose. We are satisfied from a long experience in such matters, that no difficulty would be found in placing out boys well taught, well brought up, under rules of strict discipline, and who have not yet become criminals. The expense of maintaining them as innocent children will be far less than that of maintaining them as felons, while we shall be destroying the root of this Upas tree, which stands in the midst of every densely populated neighborhood, spreading its branches so far in every direction, that the good and virtuous even can at length reach them, and think they are destroying the tree by endeavoring to keep its unwieldy limbs within bounds by the pruning-knife. A most fatal error!"

The same magistrate regards the great causes of juvenile depravity and crime in the metropolitan districts, to be "the absence of proper parental or friendly care, and the absence of a comfortable home, and," he avers, "that all children above the age of seven, and under the age of fifteen years, suffering from either of these causes, require protection to prevent their getting into bad company, learning idle and dissolute habits, growing up in ignorance, and becoming an expense and bur-

den on the country as criminals, and that such protection should be afforded by the State." He then proposes—

1. That an asylum for unprotected and destitute children shall be founded by the government, to be called the Child's Home.

2. That provision be made in such asylum for instructing children in all useful arts, trades, and occupations suitable to the working classes.

3. That unprotected and destitute children shall be deemed to include all children above seven and under fifteen years of age under the following circumstances :—Children driven from their homes by the bad conduct of parents—Children neglected by their parents—Children who are orphans, and neglected by their friends—Children who have no one to protect them or provide for them, or for whom no one does provide—Children who, from their own misconduct, have no protection or provision found them—Children who are idle or dissolute, and whose parents or friends cannot control their bad conduct—Children who are destitute of proper food, clothing, or education, owing to the poverty of their parents or friends, but whose parents or friends do not apply for or receive parish relief—Children who are destitute for want of employment, and children of the class which become juvenile offenders generally.

4. That any such child as aforesaid may be brought before any two justices of the peace, by any constable or other peace officer, or by any overseer of the poor or other parish officer, and evidence on oath being given to the satisfaction of such justices, that the child is one of either of the classes enumerated in the foregoing clause, such justice may sign an order for the admission of the child into the asylum.

5. That when in the asylum, if not claimed or redeemed as hereinafter provided, the children shall be subject to be dealt with as the state thinks proper.

6. That on a child being admitted into the asylum, inquiry shall be made by the commissioners as to the circumstances of the parents or other persons now by law bound to support the said child, and if found able to support, or contribute to the support of the said child, the justices sending the said child to the asylum may make orders from time to time for any amount of contribution to be paid for or towards the support of the said child in the said asylum.

7. That such sums be collected for the use of the asylum by the overseer or rate-collectors of the parish where the persons on whom the order is made reside, and that power be given to attach the property of such persons, or wages in the hands of masters, or due from masters of such persons, in cases of working people or servants, to satisfy the amount named in such order.

8. That all children sent to the said asylum be taught several

useful trades, arts, or occupations, besides the usual education of reading, writing, and arithmetic.

We very reluctantly, and only for want of room, postpone to a future number, what remains of this article, in which a bird's eye view is taken of the present condition of the institutions in our own county for juvenile offenders, and in which are suggested some considerations for their improvement.

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From the same.

### UNDETECTED CRIME.

Most persons would be surprised, we presume, if they should be credibly informed how many crimes are committed, the perpetrators of which are never detected. If we take up a volume of a daily newspaper, published in any of our largest cities, we shall find scarcely a number, that does not record some new case of high-handed crime. Murders, piracies, and brutal assaults, usually excite public feeling, and produce a momentary sensation of personal danger. If the pursuit of the offender is successful, the interest is kept alive by a notice of his arrest, and the preliminary proceedings of a legal investigation. It is renewed when the trial occurs, but is lost as soon as the party is discharged or convicted. It is very rare that any effort is made to trace the violent deed to any other individual, if the first scent proves false. The claim of the public for some redress of its injury, seems to be virtually barred, by a sort of conventional statue of limitations and the offender is, perhaps, living securely at his ease, in Canada, Texas or Mexico. If no clue to the author of the crime is obtained within a short time after its perpetration, it is rare that the case is kept in view. Every day brings its due quota of cases to the police dockets, and it is only where some unexpected disclosure reveals a new vein of circumstances, which some astute constable under the stimulus of a tempting reward, has a passion to explore, that an old case is brought to public view.

It is easy to illustrate what we mean. Most of our readers will remember the case of a very respectable farmer, a member of the Society of Friends, and so far as is known, without an enemy in the world,—who was passing along the public highway in Camden, and his life most barbarously taken, a year or two ago.

The deed filled the vicinity with horror,—search was made, and rewards offered, but the perpetrator of the bloody deed has not to this day been discovered, and who would think of

pursuing the inquiry now? The victim has long been in his grave,—his family and his friends have become reconciled to his fate, and the wound which was inflicted on the sensibilities of the public, is healed over, with scarcely a scar to indicate where it was.

The United States mail was robbed some few months since, while the car containing it was passing on the rail-road, within cannon shot of the State House. The bags were taken from the cars, deliberately rifled of their contents. No clue to the robbery has ever yet been obtained. It was the second robbery of the same mail, in nearly the same place.

We can call to mind a score of burglaries, murderous assaults, incendiarisms and thefts, large and small, not one of which has been traced to the guilty party, nor has even a suspicion been fixed on any individual. The undetected cases of stabbing, riot and murder, attendant on popular tumults, would of themselves make a long list.

We have attempted to obtain from the prosecuting officers in three or four of our chief cities, some estimate of the probable number of offences which escape punishment, but have not succeeded, perhaps because the thing is impracticable. If any of our readers have the means of throwing light on the subject, we shall be glad to hear from them. There are various ways for accounting for the failure, in so large a proportion of cases, to bring offenders to punishment. Among them we may mention, (1.) The unwillingness of citizens to be involved in the prosecution of offenders.—There is the attendance on the grand jury as persecutor,—and at court as a witness, when the case is tried,—with the loss of time, interruption of business, and incurring the ill-will of “nobody knows who.” (2.) The ease with which a rogue dodges between our independent sovereignties and escapes beyond the jurisdiction of the officers of justice, and the boundless range which our country affords for his wanderings. (3.) The easy virtue of too many who are entrusted with the early custody of prisoners, or their neglect or indolence, or a want of promptness or tact, in the pursuit of suspected parties. (4.) Connivances, defects, oversight or weaknesses in the administrators of the law.

The necessity will be laid upon us at some not very distant day, of giving to our criminal processes, a little more stringency, and of holding executive officers to a much stricter responsibility. The prodigious influx of adroit rogues from the old world, which will not be essentially checked by any legislation, general or local, will give a new boldness and address, to our criminal population, and will call for corresponding en-



ergy and astuteness, in those who are appointed to look out for them.

We are not prepared to say what modifications may be needful, (except that when a rogue is caught, he shall be held fast till he has satisfied the demands of justice,) but we think it revelant to allude to a suggestion of the chief magistrate of Birmingham, (Eng.,) which has occasioned no little discussion in that country.

At the opening of the sessions, October 19, 1850, Mr. Hill, the Recorder of the borough, in addressing the grand jury, propounded a scheme for the effectual repression of crime. It is notorious, he said, to all the world, that a numerous class exists among us, known individually to the officers of justice as persons who follow crime as a calling, and who have no other means of subsistence than the remuneration which belongs to their nefarious course of life. For a time, not unfrequently extending over several years, they follow this calling with impunity, because no opportunity has been found to bring home to them any particular act of crime. That they must of necessity commit offences daily, is just as well known to the police, as it is known to us that the passengers whom we meet in the streets, must daily eat and drink, although we do not follow them to their homes, and are not able to aver that they have taken food of any particular kind, or at any particular moment. The question for consideration is, whether the period has not arrived, when the knowledge thus possessed by the officers of justice may be made available to the breaking up of those gangs which hold us in a state of miserable fear, and which, by the example of their impunity, obtain recruits, and spread abroad a moral pestilence. Probably, you will be of opinion that no Englishman has much cause to be afraid that he will at this day, be exposed to wilful oppression in our courts. If, then, he can be secured from embarrassment in his defence, no ground will remain why we should forbear from calling on a party to defend himself against a charge arising out of a course of conduct any more than from a charge arising out of a particular act or acts. And this object, I think, may be accomplished, as I will proceed to explain. But I shall probably make myself better understood, if I call your attention to an instance in our law in which the principle in view has been acted upon, or, at all events, very closely approached. There is a statute on the books by which a reputed or suspected thief, by frequenting streets and certain places therein described which are supposed to furnish greater opportunities for plunder than others, may, if the magistrate before whom he is brought infer from such frequenting, that his intent was to commit a felony, be adjudged to be a rogue, and be punished with imprisonment. Here, then, we see that, by the law of England, a person, under given circumstances, may be treated as a criminal, and deprived of his liberty, without proof against him that he has committed any act which

of itself is of a criminal nature. This provision, which is now nearly a century old, is no doubt a wide departure from the general principal of our jurisprudence, to which I have adverted. No complaints, however, have arisen out of the exercise of this authority, open to abuse as it certainly would appear to be. What I would propose is, that when by the evidence of two or more creditable witnesses, a jury has been satisfied that there is good ground for believing, and that the witnesses do actually believe, that the accused party is addicted to robbery or theft, so as to deserve the appellation of thief, he shall be called upon in defence, to prove himself in possession of means of subsistence, lawfully obtained, either from his property, his labor, or from the assistance of his friends. On the failure of such proof, let him be adjudged a reputed thief, and put under high recognisances to be of good conduct for some limited period, or in default of responsible bail, let him suffer imprisonment for the same term. And, as in matters of such moment, it is always advisable to proceed with great caution, I would, until the experiment has been tried and found successful, confine the operation of the law to persons who have already been convicted of a felony, or of such a misdemeanor as necessarily implies dishonesty in the guilty party, as for instance, obtaining money or goods under false pretences. As the testimony against the accused would only amount to a presumption of guilt, so it should seem but reasonable that such testimony might be met by a counter-presumption, arising out of the fact that his wants did not place him under any overwhelming temptation to commit the crimes, in which he was supposed to be engaged. By this course of proceedings, he would be relieved from the danger of undue embarrassment in his defence. A party in the enjoyment of an honest means of subsistence, can have little difficulty in proving the fact. Doubtless a law so framed, would leave some thieves still at large, because it would be too much to assume that none are in the habit of stealing who have other sources of maintenance ; yet it would argue very little knowledge of the predatory class, not to see that such a provision would enable the ministers of justice to withdraw from society nine-tenths of the criminals who now roam at large.

We are not prepared to say how far such a provision as Recorder Hill suggests, would accomplish the purpose he has in view, nor indeed, how far it would prove practicable if attempted. Inasmuch, however, as arrests are difficult,—escapes easy,—prosecutions expensive,—convictions (of the guilty parties) often defeated,—and pardons not rare, it would seem the dictate of wisdom, to apply checks, and counteracting agencies, to the criminal intent, tendency, or position of the party. As a general thing, an idle, able-bodied poor man, has no right to complain, if the eye of the police follows him wherever he roams or rests. His very idleness is an offence against all

social laws. He wrongs somebody, and only wants a faint impulse to push him into a league with burglars and incendiaries, or to turn his hand to the more sedentary employment of forging and counterfeiting. It seems a pity that he should be left in this predicament till he becomes a master of iniquity, when perhaps, by the interposition of some mild but timely restraint, his course of life might be entirely changed. Our own impression is, that if half the pains were taken to *divert* men from these criminal courses, which we take in their pursuit and conviction, when they have fairly entered upon such courses, society would be a large gainer.

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## CIRCULAR.

## RHODE ISLAND NORMAL SCHOOL.

The Rhode Island Normal School for ladies and gentlemen, will be opened in the ante-rooms of the Second Universalist Church, nearly opposite the City Hotel, Broad-street, Providence, on Monday, November 1st, at 9 o'clock, A. M.

The School will continue for two terms of eleven weeks each, or twenty-two weeks in all.

Courses in Reading, Elocution, English Literature and Rhetoric, will be given by Prof. William Russell, late Principal of the Merri-mack Normal Institute.

Instruction in Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry and Geography, will be given by Dana P. Colburn, Esq., late of the Bridgewater Normal School, and instructor in the Massachusetts State Institutes.

Lectures on the art of teaching, and instruction in Grammar and the analysis of the English language, will be given by S. S. Greene, Superintendent of Public Schools in Providence, and Professor of Didactics in Brown University.

Lectures on Chemistry and Physiology, by Prof. G. I. Chace, and on Physical Geography, by Prof. A. Guyot, may be expected, if the enterprise meets with sufficient encouragement.

The members of the School will have access to the large and valuable library of the University.

It is the design of this school to fit teachers for the practical duties of the school room. It will, therefore, be the aim of each of the instructors to give lessons on the best methods of teaching the various departments of the common branches, rather than to survey new

fields of study. The members of the school will be expected to attend especially to the best methods of imparting instruction, not overlooking, however, the best methods of acquiring knowledge.— It is expected, therefore, that none will seek for admission to the school but those who can sustain a fair examination in the common branches.

It is earnestly hoped that those who enter the school will remain through the entire course of twenty-two weeks ; and no one will be allowed to enter for a shorter time than one term.

By the liberality of several gentlemen, citizens of Providence, all the incidental expenses of the school have been defrayed, so that the instructors are able to put the tuition at the low rate of \$8 per single quarter, or \$15 for the entire course, without additional charge.

At the end of each quarter the school will undergo an examination by a committee consisting of the following gentlemen:

His Excellency Gov. ALLEN.

Hon. E. R. POTTER, Commissioner of Public Schools.

Hon. A. C. BARSTOW, Mayor of Providence.

THE COMMITTEE ON QUALIFICATIONS, of the Providence

Rev. A. H. DUMONT, Newport. [Schools.

Rev. JOHN BOYDEN, Woonsocket.

All communications concerning the School should be addressed to  
SAMUEL S. GREENE, Providence.

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## PUBLIC HEALTH.

In the year 1849, the State of Massachusetts appointed a Commission, consisting of Dr. Shattuck and others, to report a plan for a sanitary survey of the State. This commission made a report in 1850, which is full of the most valuable information. They enter into the consideration of all the various causes which affect public health ; and the greater part of the topics are of as much importance to the people of Rhode Island as to those of Massachusetts. Attention is given to the effects of crowded lodging houses, public squares, sickness in schools, burials, quarantine laws, public baths, refuse and sewerage of cities, adulteration of food, and quack medicines. One subject is introduced, which is, perhaps, of more importance here than it is in Massachusetts. It is the effect of mill-ponds, reservoirs and stagnant waters, in producing sickness. We have always thought this a subject deserving of the deepest consideration. Yet it is very seldom thought of as a source of disease. The whole report is interesting, and ought to be generally circulated and known.



From the Boston Traveller, August 20. 1852.

## NEW ENGLAND NORMAL INSTITUTE.

The preparatory arrangements connected with the seminary edifices and boarding accomodations of this institution, are now we understand, in progress, with a view to opening early in May, in the town of Lancaster, in this State, the inhabitants of which have liberally secured to the establishment a central and advantageous as well as beautiful location.

The new Seminary, though designed as a strictly professional School for Teachers, of both sexes, and intended to be conducted in the form of a 'Teachers' Institute in permanent session, yet differs, in several important points, from those excellent establishments, the Normal Schools of the State. It is to be open to teachers from all the States of New England, or from any part of the Union. Being a private undertaking, it will lay no restriction on its graduates, as to where they shall teach, subsequently to their course of professional study. It will admit persons intending to teach private as well as those who wish to teach public schools, and is designed for such as are desirous of becoming competent to give instructions in the higher seminaries of learning, as well as for the training of those who are preparing for the duties of elementary teaching. As a school of departments, each under a separate principal teacher, it affords to its students the opportunity of selecting particular branches, to be pursued exclusively, at the option of individuals, according to their expective wants. It thus, at the same time, allows those who need only this partial course of preperation, to complete it in a shorter period of time than is consistent with the uniform prescribed course of the State normal schools, which is justly adapted to persons commencing a full and extended course of professional study.

The Institute will embrace in its arrangements *a series of graded model schools*, including a primary, a grammar, and a high school; each under the care of a permanent instructor, teaching under the superintendence of the heads of departments in the Institute. To these schools pupils will be admitted on examination, and classified according to their previous attainments.

The general affairs of the Institute will be under the direction of Mr. William Russell, formerly editor of the American Journal of Education, and principal of the Merrimac Normal Institute. The gentlemen who are to take charge of the various branches of instruction in the classes of the Institute are principally the same who are occupied during the spring and autumn months as instructors in the Massachusetts State In-

stitutes. The department including reading, elocution, declamation, grammar, rhetoric and composition, will be under the care of Mr. Russell; the mathematical department under Mr. Dana P. Colburn of the State Institutes, a graduate of Bridgewater Normal School, and for nearly three years a teacher in that seminary; the classical department, including the Greek and Latin languages, and the department of modern languages, including German, French and Italian, are expected to be under the charge of Mr. Krusi, son of the coadjutor of Pestalozzi of the same name, till whose arrival a temporary arrangement will if necessary be made; drawing as a branch of elementary education, will be under the direction of Mr. William J. Whitaker of the Boston School of Design; instrumental music, the pianoforte, under the charge of Mr. George L. Babcock, for several years a pupil of Azerney; vocal music under Geo. W. Pratt, M. A., instructor in the public schools of Boston and Roxbury; the French language—in the female department—under Miss Anna U. Russell, for several years a pupil of Mr. Charles Picot of Philadelphia, and subsequently Instructress in Merrimac Normal Institute; penmanship under Mr. Algernon S. Shattuck, teacher in Merrimac Normal Institute. The following, and other gentlemen, will give lectures on their respective subjects during a portion of the year; Prof. A. Guyot on geography; Prof. Samuel S. Greene on the analysis of language; Francis T. Russell, instructor in elocution, Trinity College, Hartford, on elocution; Calvin Cutter, M. D., on physiology; Prof. Wm. Russell on English literature, general history, logic and intellectual philosophy, modes of education and methods of instruction. Other teachers and lecturers are also engaged, whose departments will be more fully mentioned in the prospectus of the Institute.

The academic year will consist of a summer and a winter term of twenty weeks each, at nearly equal intervals; the former commencing on the Second Monday of May, and the latter, on the Monday following Thanksgiving week in the State of Massachusetts. Tuition Fees will depend on the number of branches selected by students, individually. Board, on the terms assigned by families resident in the vicinity of the Institute.

Particulars regarding these matters, and the arrangements connected with the Model Schools may be ascertained, by letter, addressed to William Russell, Director N. E. Normal Institute, Lancaster, Mass.

The examinations of the Institute, and the conferring of Certificates, will be conducted under the supervision of a Board of Visitors, consisting of the following individuals:—Barnas Sears, D. D., Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of

Education ; Edward A. Park, D. D., of Andover Theological Seminary ; Hon. Horace Mann, M. C. ; George B. Emerson, Esq., of Boston ; Rev. Charles Packard, of Lancaster ; Hon. Henry Barnard, State Superintendent of Schools, Conn. ; Hon. E. R. Potter, State Superintendent of Schools, R. I. ; Professor John S. Woodman, of Dartmouth College ; Charles G. Burnham, formerly State Superintendent of Schools, Vermont ; Hon. E. M. Thurston, formerly Secretary of the Board of Education, Maine.

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For the Rhode Island Educational Magazine.

### MANNERS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

In reading the proceedings of Educational Conventions, and also their printed lectures, nothing has struck me more forcibly than the *almost* entire omission of both speakers and writers, to notice the important question of manners. An experience of ten years as a member of the School Committee, and a reading of all books within my reach, on the subject of education, have seemed to make me know the deficiency of correct information, or rather, of any information respecting a topic so conducive to our enjoyment in daily intercourse with our fellow beings. While I have read, or heard lectures upon nearly every branch of school instruction, I can call to mind two or three only, treating specially of manners. The most conspicuous of these lectures is that delivered by Mr. Thayer, of Boston, on Courtesy, several years since. A writer in the Massachusetts Teacher has, likewise, given a good article upon the same topic. If a call is made at a book store for some manual of manners no satisfactory book, until recently, could be found. If an effort is made to call attention to the introduction of a text book on this subject into public schools, the attempt is so coldly received, and so much indifference is expressed as to its being considered one of the *necessary* branches of education, that the mover becomes disheartened, and can only express his regret that while *all* are favorably impressed with good manners whenever met with, *few* admit the necessity of early training childhood in its paths. The writer can speak experimentally upon this sad fact, having endeavored to call attention to some remarks upon Manners, and being met with the inquiry as to the length of time they would occupy ! All other lectures may be read at the writer's option, let the topic *be* hackneyed, but this subject is to be admitted by favor, if at all. This neglect should be remedied.

A book called the Manual of Manners, written by Miss Sedgwick is now published. At its first appearance a suggestion was made that a copy should be put into every school in Rhode Island to be used by the teacher in giving instruction by reading *one* paragraph *every* day and *explaining* it to the pupils. The benefit *might* not be confined to the schools. It is to be hoped that the plan may yet be carried out, and that our small State may be the first to train its children systematically by a daily lesson in good Manners. T.

## THE BIBLE.

The following beautiful lines originally appeared in a small book, "My Early Days," published about twenty years ago. Whether the name, Walter Ferguson, affixed to it, is the real name of the author or not, we do not know. The whole story is very interesting, and is written in a very superior style. It should have a place, not only in every Sunday School Library, but in every family and private library.

## A MOTHER'S GIFT.

Remember, love, who gave thee this,  
When other days shall come ;  
When she, who had thy earliest kiss,  
Sleeps in her narrow home.  
Remember 't was a mother gave  
The gift to one she'd die to save.

That mother sought a pledge of love  
The holiest for her son ;  
And from the gifts of God above  
She chose a goodly one.  
She chose, for her beloved boy,  
The source of light, of life, and joy.

And bade him keep the gift,—that, when  
The parting hour would come,  
They might have hope to meet again  
In an eternal home.  
She said his faith in that would be  
Sweet incense to her memory.

And should the scoffer, in his pride,  
Laugh that fond faith to scorn,  
And bid him cast the pledge aside,  
That he from youth had borne;  
She bade him pause, and ask his breast,  
If he, or she, had loved him best.

A parent's blessing on her son  
Goes with this holy thing ;  
The love that would retain the one,  
Must to the other cling.  
Remember 't is no idle toy,  
A mother's gift—Remember, boy !



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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NO. 11.

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From the Sunday School Journal.

## MUSIC AND SONG.

In another column of our present number will be found a very eloquent and impressive extract from the *North British Review*, on the moral and social influence of popular songs. It has suggested to our minds a few thoughts, to which, as well as to the extract itself, we beg the attention of our readers.

There is probably no branch of public instruction, that involves more of the social enjoyment, and the general amelioration of the manners and habits of a community than music, and it may be affirmed with equal truth, that scarcely any branch has received, in our country, so little systematic attention. In no part of the United States, (so far as our information extends,) has vocal music been introduced, and liberally sustained as a permanent branch of instruction. That it has been taught in some schools, more or less systematically for a time, we all know. But no one will pretend that it has ever, in any place occupied the position, in the circle of popular science, which it occupies in several European countries.

In England, popular music has been for many years a prominent object of attention from the Committee of Council on Education. The great advantages which were seen to result in the manufacturing counties of Lancashire, Yorkshire and Norfolk, from the cultivation of old-song music, and from the formation of chord and harmonic societies, (especially to apprentices and operatives of various ranks,) were too obvious to escape observation, and when the inquiry was raised, why all

the countries and towns were not in the enjoyment of the same source of gratification and refinement, the cause was soon found to be the general neglect of the science as a regular branch in elementary schools. How much more general the indifference to the subject which prevails in the United States, we need not say.

In consequence of this neglect, we lose the opportunity to cultivate, by a most effective method, patriotic and ennobling sentiments, such as are breathed in the national songs and ballads of the old countries. Indeed there is no other so easy method of interweaving with the domestic sympathies and associations of humble life, the motives which animate industry, the sentiments of virtue and benevolence, and the traditions of events which, in popular estimation, gives strength and greatness to one's country. No one can estimate the extent to which the songs and marches, that are associated by title or otherwise with signal actions, or with the achievements of eminent statesmen or generals, contribute to popular confidence in national power and dignity. We do not include, of course, in commendatory remarks of this kind anything that ministers to corrupt, ambitious, or unchristian principles or practices, but simply those events which mark the progress of truth and right. The song entitled "Adams and Liberty," beginning\*

Ye sons of Columbia who bravely have fought,  
with the chorus

For ne'er shall the sons of Columbia be slaves,  
While the earth bears a plant, or the sea rolls its waves,

has probably given birth, in its day, to more patriotic emotions, than any speech or volume of speeches extant. The same remark may be made with equal force respecting the class of songs and ballads that breathe the purer spirit of peace and love.

Americans have no national song, ballad or anthem. "Yankee doodle" is no exception to this remark, inasmuch as it owes its interest chiefly to local associations, and is quite unworthy to be dignified as a national song. We have nothing to answer to the French Marseilles hymn, or the English "God save the King." If there is any one class of musical compositions, which can be said to have a national universality, it is that which is known as the "negro melodies;" and probably no lower grade of metrical or poetical art was ever reached. What it is in these airs that takes so marvellously, we do not

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\*It is confidently asserted, that this song as well as Yankee Doodle owes its music to a foreign pen, and a by gone age.

pretend to know. Their simplicity is certainly peculiar, and besides this, there is something, which in rhyme we should call *jingle*, that makes it easy to catch the air and remember it. Why words of stirring sentiment, or patriotic fervor, or historic interest should not have the advantage of such a popular association we cannot divine, but certain we are, that no other method of diffusing them could be pursued with anything like the same effect.

The truth is, if we mean to have the practice of this harmonizing and elevating art assume a national character, we must make it a branch of universal education. The voices of all little children must be put in tune, and they must learn to read music as they read story books; and we must associate with such music wholesome religious, moral and patriotic sentiments in captivating verse. This is what has made other nations musical, and thereby contributed vastly to the personal, social, and civil improvement of the people.

The author of "*Souvenirs of a Summer in Germany*," draws for us a graphic picture of the musical education that prevails there. When visiting the school at Schwalbach, the children, at the request of the visitors, were permitted to sing. "Great was the delight of the little creatures, when this request was made known. There was a universal brightening of faces and shuffling of leaves. The pedagogue took down an old violin from a peg where it hung, and accompanied their sweet voices in a pretty simple air, while they sung parts from the notes." None of your see-sawing, drawling, half-read and half-sung recitation of some hackneyed infant school song of the alphabet, or the multiplication table, but a true substantial piece of music—in parts—from the notes!

"The next room," says our traveller, "was full of little boys between six and eight years of age. They sang a hymn for us, the simple words of which were very touching. As I stood behind one little fellow, hardly higher than the table, I understood how it was that the Germans are a nation of musicians, and that in listening to the rude songs of the peasants at their work, the ear is never shocked by the drawling untaught style of the same classes of people in our country, (England;) from the time they are able to lisp, they are made to sing by note. My little friend in the ragged blouse, and all the other children had the music, as well as the words they were singing, in their hands, written on a sheet of paper; they followed the tune as correctly as possible, marking with their little fingers on the page the crotchets, quavers, rests, &c.

"At Leipsic," he continues, "the most un-English trait that I gathered during our speculations at the window this evening was a groupe of little boys playing in the grass plot outside.

They were all poor, and a few stockingless, and were engaged in some uproarious game. When in the middle of it, the little urchins burst into the most harmonious melody, each taking his part, soprano, tenor, bass, &c., with exquisite correctness. I saw them jump up, and linking each other's arms, in true school-boy pastime, sally down the street vociferating their songs in such time and tune, that but for my initiation into the mystery at the Schwelbach school, I should have stared at them as so many little wonders. What a delightful system is this music ! As early and as indispensable a branch of education as the A. B. C."

We do not suppose, that the ear or the vocal organs of the Germans, are any more adapted to produce, or to enjoy "the concord of sweet sounds," than the Americans or Englishmen. It is only to incorporate the cultivation of music systematically and thoroughly into the elementary department of public and private education, and to take care that it is made subservient to the inculcation of wise and pure sentiments, and we shall have not only our schoolhouses and play-grounds, our nurseries and gardens, but our streets and lanes, and obscure courts ringing out with mellow music, so filling our ears with happy thoughts and sounds, instead of profane oaths, and low and corrupting songs.

We had intended to dwell a little on the shameful neglect of singing in our Sunday-schools. Whatever may be said by way of apology, for an indifference to the subject in secular-schools, there can be none offered for not making it a prominent object of attention in Sunday-schools. Here it is no inconsiderable part of the process of education. To awaken emotions of gratitude and love in the hearts of children, hymns of praise to the great Creator and Redeemer of men are set to simple music. The hymns are, or should be intelligently committed to memory, and the manner of singing them should be such as to make the association agreeable, impressive and permanent. It is not too much to say, that the style in which this part of our Sunday-school exercises is oftentimes performed, is not only discreditable to all concerned, but is an abuse and perversion of one of the noblest faculties of our nature. We do hope every Sunday-school to which these remarks are applicable and that has life enough to move, will take prompt measures to make the singing of their psalms, hymns, and spiritual songs, suitable to the place, the day and the object.

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Think like the wise ; but talk like ordinary people.

Boys that are philosophers at six years of age, are generally blockheads at twenty-one.—*Home Journal*.



For the Rhode Island Educational Magazine.

## CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

At a meeting of the School Committee of Boston, a teacher was requested to resign his situation on account of the severity of punishment he had inflicted upon a pupil. The case is not detailed, to my knowledge, nor do I know the result of the circular of the Committee. In most of the reported cases of this description the verdict has acquitted the teacher. The first impressions of the public and the feelings of the parents of the flogged child are against this decision. A careful examination as made in a Court of Justice, and the thorough sifting of the points relied upon to prove the guilt of the accused before the jury sworn to render a verdict according to the evidence, would in a vast majority of cases result in mollifying the acerbity of feeling, both in the minds of the public and of the parents. The plain truth of the whole matter is, that while the parents are ready to admit that the teacher ought to stand in loco parentis,—in the place of the parent,—while the pupils are under his charge, and, as a parent, has an undoubted right to enforce obedience, yet if this requisite for due government is not obtained in the way the parents think proper all their previous admissions are blown to atoms at once, and they fiercely and unjustly blame the teacher because he did not happen to hit upon the very mode of punishment which they had always found successful in conquering the refractory behavior of the child. A mode used by one would be disapproved by another parent, and amid such a contrariety of notions upon this topic, which one shall the teacher select?—Shall he accord with the wishes of one parent and stop the exercises of the whole school, while he occupies their time, and calls attention to a course of expostulation with the delinquent, and then hurries through the remainder of the exercises thus disjointed and yet to be attended to? Or shall he, with another parent, believe it more beneficial to send home the pupil for his parents to correct according to their judgment, which may not, however, be the better way for his future good conduct in school? Or shall he, in accordance with the principle and practise of a third parent inflict severe corporal punishment not beyond the extent of that frequently received from the parent himself, but yet exciting the anger of the father or mother to exclaim against its cruelty. How knows the teacher, willing though he may be to accommodate his style of punishment to the varied tastes of the parents, what is their favorite mode of securing prompt obedience. He, therefore, follows the fashion endorsed by long usage as taking least time, as well as obtaining the desired result with but

short detention from his regular studies,—he flogs at once, and, according to the maxim of many successful teachers, he makes his blows felt.

A book on Corporal Punishment, written by Lyman Cobb, in 1847, containing 270 pages, gives forty “preventives of, and substitutes for the use of Corporal Punishment. Being a member of a school committee, and desirous of extending my knowledge upon all educational matters, I suggested to a bookseller to send for a copy for me as he was unwilling to risk a *greater* order. Feeling indisposed toward any “substitutes or preventives” I looked carefully through the book and wished as I read, that the good suggestions of the author might be introduced for daily application to all delinquent pupils. But when in my visits to these schools, the number of scholars under the care of the teachers, and the interruption caused by adopting novel modes of punishment amid a multitude of pupils met my eye, I was fain to let the new notions “slide,” and with many other new wishes look forward to better times for improvement in Corporal Punishment. The alteration in our moral punishments illustrates with a flood of light the whole difficulty in effecting a change in an old and long established custom. The hopes of many, and mine among them, were agreeably excited at the promise of better modes of punishment for the sailor. How benevolent expectations have been realized may be ascertained by any careful enquirer of the nature of the substitutes for the old form of punishment. So vexatious, harassing and tormenting are they that a majority of votes could be obtained from our naval sailors for a repeal of the law passed with such kind intentions for their bodily welfare. Let any intelligent superintendent or committee-man apply these notions to the schools, falling under his notice, and if an experience of 12 years authorizes a decision,—they will in too many cases find the substitutes for Corporal Punishment to partake too much of the character of those above alluded to, for any considerate man to approve.

If such be the result of an attempt at reform, what plan shall be adopted? Shall the pupil run the risk of having his best feelings outraged by being a daily witness almost, of severe Corporal Punishment, or shall he rather cast his eyes around upon a set of refractory and unprofitable pupils, not learning their own lessons and hindering the attention of the well disposed to their proper duties. Space, perhaps, ought not to be asked at this time for any more remarks, but a future opportunity may, perhaps, be permitted to this writer.

## GOOD MANNERS.

*To the Editor of the R. I. Educational Magazine :*

I was glad to see an article in a late number of your paper on the subject of "Manners in Public Schools." I fully agree with your contributor "T." in the opinion that the teaching of good manners should be made a branch of instruction in our common schools, and have thought so for many years. But how is this to be brought about? Good manners can only be acquired in perfection through the influence of example and by associating with those who practice them. They cannot be communicated through precept alone. Books can only give, as it were, their first rudiments. It is true a code of rules may be drawn up to guard against the grosser breaches of good breeding, but its unexplainable perfection and polish can only be acquired by an intimate intercourse with persons of refined minds and manners. To teach good manners, every school teacher should therefore, be perfectly well bred. It would require no effort for such to communicate good manners to their pupils. Their every word, motion and look, would unconsciously beget their like in the minds, and manners of their scholars, and they would insensibly acquire the indescribable charm that attaches to good breeding. But how are we to obtain a body of teachers who are uniformly possessed of good manners? It must be a work of some time to do so, it is true, but it nevertheless may be accomplished. The Normal School now about being established by the city of Providence, may be made to contribute greatly to this end. The social position of our school-teachers should be elevated. They have never taken that stand in society which their vocation *should* entitle them to occupy. Next to that of parents, their relation to the community in every respect—religious, moral, civil and political—is more important, than that of any other class among us. It is easier to bend a thousand twigs in a right direction than one full grown tree. Teachers of schools should be aware of the immense responsibilities attached to their calling. They should modestly assume and maintain the position in society they are justly entitled to, and resolve by a virtuous and gentlemanly demeanor to maintain it. They should look upon no man as their superior on account of any adventitious accident of birth or fortune—nor upon any man as their inferior on account of

the humble station he may chance to occupy—and above all things avoid the despicable sentiment, that has for centuries been nursed and perpetuated in the higher institutions of learning, that to labor with the hands is inconsistent with the character of the gentleman. However custom may have rooted this false idea in the European minds too deep for eradication without a total disorganization of civil society,—we, in this country, are strong enough to brave the opinion of the pedantic and servile race who would perpetuate the prejudice here. Vigorous bodily exercise is essential to vigorous mental development. We should all learn to feel that there is nothing that is truthfully necessary to the well being of God's creatures on earth, that is derogatory for man to perform in its right place and time by any man who has the ability and opportunity, whether he be a king or a beggar. They are both created in the image of God and in his sight are both alike. He looks not at the gauds and baubles that envelope the person of the one, nor at the rags that scarcely hides the nakedness of the other. He looks into the heart. True dignity of character is ever united with simplicity and humility. One of the last acts of our Saviour whilst personally on earth, was to wash his disciples' feet—the feet of poor laborers and fishermen—one of the most menial offices that could be performed, and most strikingly emblematic of humility and loveliness of mind. But with all this humility, how self-possessed, how dignified in his whole demeanor was Jesus Christ, in every position and under every circumstance, whether engaged in healing the diseases and infirmities of beggars, in the presence of Pilate, the representative of imperial Rome, or when deserted by his followers and suffering the most excruciating pains upon the cross. His was a pattern of true dignity of character, which needed no artificial propping, no privileged assumption, to sustain.—It is the duty of every true believer in Christ to follow in all things the pattern he has set for us, as well as to obey his commands. His every example is a command to do likewise to the utmost of our ability, and this would lead us to do unto others as we would they should do unto us; which comprehends the whole christian duty of man to his fellow man, and the whole essence of true politeness.

Entire truthfulness is an all essential component of good breeding, and it should be the duty of our school teachers to constantly impress



its superlative importance upon the minds of their pupils. So vastly important did the ancient Persians consider this virtue, that they made it almost the only point in the education of their youth. It cannot be too highly estimated by Christians—and yet it is a lamentable fact that there are parents in our country who studiously teach their children to lie,—a crime probably of as great magnitude in the sight of the Almighty as any that is made penal by our laws.

Cruelty to dumb animals should also come under the cognizance of school teachers. In vain may we expect anything good or great from the boy or man who delights in giving pain to the most insignificant insect endued with life, and yet it is astonishing to see how lightly many parents seem to regard a disposition inclined to cruelty in their children.

“I would not enter on my list of friends,  
Though graced with polished manners and fine sense;  
Yet wanting sensibility; the man who needlessly sets foot upon a worm.”

This beautiful and truthful sentiment of the poet Cowper should be engraved on the walls of every school room in Rhode Island; and if our teachers could induce generations as they rise, to adopt and live in accordance with its spirit, they would confer incalculable benefit in the cause of humanity and true religion.

PORTSMOUTH, R. I.

A writer in the New Englander, after a careful investigation of the subject—“The Sources of the Population”—gives the following table as the result of his studies:—

Population of the United States in 1850	23,263,498
Anglo Saxon by birth or blood . . . .	15,000,000
African “ “ . . . .	3,594,762
Irish “ “ . . . .	2,269,000
German “ “ . . . .	1,900,000
French, &c. “ “ . . . .	489,736
Whole number of immigrants from all countries, between 1790 and 1850 . . .	2,759,329
Survivors of these in 1850 . . . .	1,511,990
Whole number of immigrants, between 1790 and 1850, with their descendants in 1850	4,350,329
Survivors of these . . . . .	3,103,095
Total of all our population, exclusive of Anglo Saxon blood . . . . .	8,263,498

## "THE BEAUTIFUL CHILD JESUS."

FROM THE GERMAN OF JOHANN VON DERDER.

Among green, pleasant meadows,  
All in a grove so wild,  
Was set a marble image  
Of the Virgin and her child.

There oft on summer evenings  
A lovely boy would rove,  
To play beside the image  
That sanctified the grove.

Oft sat his mother by him  
Among the shadows dim,  
And told how the Lord Jesus  
Was once a child like him ;

And now from the highest heaven  
He doth look down each day,  
And sees whate'er thou doest,  
And hears what thou dost say.

Thus spake the tender mother ;  
And on an evening bright,  
When the red, round sun descended  
Mid clouds and crimson light,

Again the boy was playing,  
And earnestly said he :  
"O, beautiful Lord Jesus,  
Come down and play with me !"

"I'll find thee flowers the fairest,  
And weave for thee a crown ;  
I will get thee ripe red strawberries,  
If thou wilt but come down."

"O, holy, holy Mother,  
Put him down from off thy knee !  
For in these silent meadows  
There are none to play with me."

Thus spake the boy so lovely ;  
The while his mother heard,  
And on his prayer she pondered,  
But spoke to him no word.

The self-same night she dreamed  
A lovely dream of joy ;

She thought she saw young Jesus  
There playing with the boy.

“And for the fruits and flowers  
Which thou hast brought to me,  
Rich blessings shall be given  
A thousand fold to thee.

“For in the fields of heaven  
Thou shalt roam with me at will,  
And of bright fruit celestial  
Thou shalt have, dear child, thy fill.”

Thus tenderly and kindly  
The fair child Jesus spoke ;  
And, full of careful musings,  
The anxious mother woke.

And thus it was accomplished ;  
In a short month and a day,  
That lovely boy so gentle  
Upon his death bed lay.

And thus he spoke in dying :  
“O, mother dear, I see  
The beautiful child Jesus  
A coming down to me !

“And in his hand he beareth  
Bright flowers as white as snow,  
And red and juicy strawberries—  
Dear mother let me go !”

He died, and that dear mother  
Her tears could not restrain ;  
But she knew he was with Jesus,  
And she did not weep again.

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## HEARING WITH THE TEETH.

Curious as this assertion may appear, it is easy to prove it by the following simple experiment : Lay a watch upon a table, glass downwards ; then stand so far from it that you cannot, in the ordinary way, hear the ticking. Now place the end of a small deal stick, say six feet long, upon the back of the watch, and grip the teeth to the other ; with the fingers close each ear to exclude all external noise ; the beat of the watch will then be as audible as if placed against the ear.—All other sounds can be conveyed in the same manner, no

matter how long the stick is; for instance, if one end is put upon a piano forte, in a sitting-room facing a garden, and the stick is thirty or forty feet long, extending to the farther end of the lawn or walk, if the instrument is ever so slightly played, the "tune" will instantly be distinguished by any person applying the teeth to the opposite end of the stick.

We clip the foregoing from an exchange paper. Many years ago, an old subscriber, who was entirely deaf, called at our office, and with the help of a slate which he always carried with him, we were enabled to converse with each other. In the course of our interview he remarked that for many years he had not been able to hear even the loudest thunder; but added that, to his great surprise, a few evenings before, he was at the house of a friend, and was seated by the side of a piano, his elbow resting upon it and his teeth upon his thumb, when he heard distinctly the tune which the daughter of his friend happened to be playing. Again and again he tried the experiment, and he could always hear when the connection thus formed was kept up; but could hear nothing whatever when it was broken, either by the removal of his elbow from the piano or by placing his thumb upon any other portion of his face. From the character of our informant we have never had a doubt of the truth of his narrative; and we give it now chiefly as a suggestion whether some simple instrument cannot be framed by means of which deaf persons may be enabled to hear with their teeth.—*Richmond (Va.) Watchman and Observer.*

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THE NEW STYLE.—Yesterday, the 13th of September, completed the first century since the New Style, or Gregorian Calendar, was introduced into Great Britain and its dependencies, although previously long in use in Roman Catholic countries.

The New Style differed from the Old in two particulars, by omitting eleven days after September 1st, or calling the 2d the 13th, and by beginning the year on January 1st, and not on Annunciation, or 25th of March. The length of the *legal* year 1752, was therefore only 282 days, or about 40 weeks.—The Old Style, is however, yet in use in those countries (Prussia, Greece, &c.) where the Greek Church is professed, although inconvenient and manifestly erroneous. As, according to Old Style, but not in the New, the year 1800 was bissextile, the difference since that year has been twelve days, and the 14th of September, is called in St. Petersburg the 2d. After the year 1900 the difference will be again increased to thirteen days; but it is highly probable that before that time the Old Style will be universally discarded.—*Boston Traveller.*



## RHODE ISLAND NORMAL SCHOOL.

We had an opportunity to be present for a short time, a few days since, at the exercises of the Normal School, and were glad to find so great a number of teachers in attendance. The school has been opened with very flattering prospects, and it is a subject of congratulation that we have such a school in the State and under the management of such able instructors.

The sessions of the school are held in the Second Universalist Church, (nearly opposite the City Hotel.) The exercises continue from 9 A. M. to 1 P. M. every day, except Saturday and Sunday.—Prof. Greene gives instruction in grammar; Mr. Colburn in arithmetic and geography, and Prof. William Russell and Mr. Sumner in reading and elocution. Prof. Guyot is also expected to assist.

The school will continue through the winter, and we hope that the enterprising gentlemen who have undertaken it will receive such encouragement as to induce them to continue it the next winter.

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MAP OF THE STATE.

We understand that Mr. Walling has nearly completed his survey of the South part of the State, and that his map of the State will probably be published soon. When published, each school district will be entitled to a copy of it.

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From the Massachusetts School Journal, Vol. 1st.

Naked, on parent knees, a newborn child

Weeping thou sat'st while all around thee smiled;

So live, that sinking to thy last long sleep

Thou then may'st smile, while all around thee weep.

*An eastern Poet, translated by Sir William Jones.*

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We heard the following interesting conversation a few days since, between two candidates for academic honor:

"Bill, spell cat, rat, hat, bat, fat, with only one letter for each word."

"It can't be *did*."

"What! you just ready to report verbatim, phonetically, and can't do that? Just look here! c 80 cat, r 80 rat, h 80 hat, b 80 bat, f 80 fat."

## DISTRICT AND VILLAGE LIBRARIES.

We have been for some time engaged in preparing a catalogue of books suitable for district and village libraries, and now have it nearly completed. It is founded upon the catalogue prepared by Mr. Barnard, and published in the journal of the Rhode Island Institute of Instruction, but with an improved classification of the books and many additions. We shall probably publish it in the December number of this Magazine.

This catalogue has been a work of some labor, and we hope will be useful to those who are selecting books for such libraries.

It must shortly be determined whether this Magazine shall be continued for another year. Knowing that few such undertakings had ever been supported by subscribers only, and knowing that if we relied upon subscribers, the Magazine would have but a small circulation and would not effect the objects we desired, we determined in the beginning to send it free of charge to the clerk of every school district, and the chairman and clerk of every school committee. In this way it may be made a means by which all necessary information relating to the schools, school law, &c., can be circulated in every part of the State. The advantage of having such a means of communication as this must be obvious at once.

Three liberal gentlemen of the city of Providence, offered to aid us in bearing the expense of the publication, but about half of the amount necessary to pay the bills remains to be raised. We think the Magazine has done good, and may be made hereafter (now that it is well known and its circulation is established,) to do a great deal more good than it has yet done.

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A deaf and dumb person being asked, "What is forgiveness?" took a pencil and wrote a reply, containing a volume of the most exquisite and deep truth, in these words:—"It is the odour which flowers yield when trampled upon." Another being asked, "What is gratitude?" replied in a similar manner;—"It is the memory of the heart."

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Philosophers say that shutting the eyes makes the sense of hearing more acute. A wag suggests that this accounts for the many closed eyes that are seen in our churches on Sundays.

## AN AFRICAN REVIEW.

The King took his seat under a canopy of umbrellas, and placed us on his right : about the royal person were the ministers and high military officers ; at the foot of the throne sat the too-noo noo ; and now in the distance, ready at call, appeared the mae-ha-pah, a soldier too. As soon as the King was seated, the troops, male and female, marched past in quick time ; 77 banners and 160 huge umbrellas enlivening the scene ; while 55 discordant bands, and the shouts of soldiers as they hailed the King *en passant*, almost deafened the observers. The royal male regiment, separating from the main body, headed by an emblem of a leopard on a staff, skirmished toward the royal canopy, keeping up a constant independent fire. In advance was a band of blunderbuss men in long green grass cloaks, for bush service. Halting in front, they held aloft their muskets with one hand, while with the other they rattled a small metal bell, which each soldier carried, and yelled and shouted. Some having lighted ornamented pieces, flung them in the air, to catch them again. This is the Dahoman salute ; and, in answer to it, his majesty left his war-stool, and placing himself at their head, danced a war-dance. First, he received a musket and fired it ; then danced, advanced, and retired ; he then crept cautiously forward, and standing on tiptoe, reconnoitered ; this he did several times, dancing each time a retreat ; at last, making certain of the position of the enemy, he received and fired a musket ; and this was the signal for all, with a war-cry to rush on and recommence firing. On their recall, having again saluted, the King returned to his tent, and told us he had been to war. After much firing, the Amazons took position to the left, and having formed a canopy in the center for their officers, who sat on stools, squatted on their hams. In this undignified but usual position, with their long Danish muskets standing up like a forest, they remained observers of the remainder of the operation. This now became a sort of military levee, at which each chief prostrated before the King, introduced his officers, and reported the numbers of his retainers. Having taken ground at the further end of the field, one at a time, the squadrons enfiladed between two fetish houses, and commenced an independent open fire, and deploying into line, passed to the right of the royal stool, while the officers came up at double quick time, prostrated themselves, danced, fired muskets, and then received each, as a mark of favor, a bottle of rum. After the cabooceers had thus passed, the ministers performed the same ceremony, among them as Senor Ignatio Da Souza, the slave dealer. and cabooceer, at the head of his brother the chacha's levies. As they danced down toward the royal seat the King left his throne.

and went out and danced with him. A regiment advanced, guarding the idols of the military festishes; the King again left his stool, and poured some rum on black puddings of human blood, which were carried by the fetish priests. At seven the last body had passed, that of the mayo's company of 300 men, which ended the review. Order and discipline were observable throughout, uniform and good accoutrements general; and, except in the most civilized countries in the world, and even there as regarded the order of the multitude, no review could have gone off better. There was no delay, no awkwardness, no accident—aides-de-camp rushing about with orders; it was noble and extremely interesting. Every facility was offered us toward acquiring information, and, except an exaggeration in numbers, truly given. The King has great pride in his army, and often turned to us with an inquiring eye as the Amazons went through their evolutions; he is justly proud of these female guards, who appear in every way to rival the male.—*Dahomey and the Dahomans, by F. E. Forbes, R. N.*

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OPINION OF AN OPPONENT.—Robert Rantoul, Jr., recently paid the following high compliment to Mr. Webster:

“That gigantic intellect whom nowhere in America need I name, who in the forensic art has far surpassed all emulation in this hemisphere; and, in my judgment, looking through the present generation of men, in the old world also; combining the fiery energy of movement, sustained, though impetuous, proper to the great vindicator of Athenian liberty, with a fancy as rich and a diction as glowing as those of the Roman orator, but whose exuberance is chastened and restrained by the severer taste which subjects all ornament to the necessities of dense and ponderous logic, to form an oratory like which there is nothing, and second to which there is nothing, in the works of other statesmen of our times.”

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A gentleman in conversation with Mr. John Wesley once used the expression *Vox populi vox Dei*. He at once replied, “No, it cannot be the voice of God; for it was *vox populi* that cried out, ‘Crucify him, crucify him!’”

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☞ THE RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE will be published monthly. All pamphlets, exchange papers, or communications, should be addressed to E. R. POTTER, Providence, R. I. Letters, (post paid) may be directed to Providence or Kingston. Terms, 50 cents per annum, in advance.



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. I.

PROVIDENCE, DECEMBER, 1852.

NO. 12.

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WE have delayed the publication of this number of the Educational Magazine for the purpose of including the "*Schedule of Inquiries to be made respecting every School*," prepared by Mr. Barnard, our predecessor, as Commissioner of Public Schools in this State, and now Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut. These inquiries have been drawn up, to direct the attention of school officers and parents to the most important circumstances in the location, external arrangements and organization of a school, as well as to the main features in its internal economy. It is not expected that any officer will attempt to answer, or procure answers to every question; but it is believed that the careful perusal of this schedule before, or while visiting a school, will bring that school, with all its conditions of success or failure, distinctly before the mind of the visitors. These questions will suggest to teachers, the consideration of the more important principles of teaching, of the relative merit of different methods of instruction and discipline as well as different forms of school organization. They will also be found very convenient to committees in examining candidates for the office of teacher. Read by parents, they will enable them to question their own children at home, as to the manner in which they are taught at school.

Mr. Barnard, in drawing up these inquiries, has availed himself of a set of questions prepared for the examination of can-

didates for graduation in the Normal School of the British and Foreign School Society, as well as of queries addressed to teachers of schools in connection with the Free Church of Scotland.

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PUBLIC EDUCATION IN EUROPE.

"Our readers will be glad to learn that Mr. Barnard is preparing for the press a new edition of his work on "Normal Schools", with the title of "Public Education in Europe,"—a title which more accurately indicates the contents of the volume. Of the original work we have before spoken. We have not hesitated to pronounce it, in our judgment, *the most valuable contribution which has yet been made to the library of the American teacher or educator*. It is to our profession, what Blackstone is to the lawyer, and Bowditch's Navigator to the mariner.

It contains the most complete history of the best systems of primary education in the several countries of Europe, and the only extended account which has been given in any book in the English language, of the various institutions, agencies and means for the professional training and improvement of teachers. It is full of valuable suggestions as to methods of teaching, and the arrangements of courses of instruction in schools of different grades. The suggestions and plans which it presents, are not the crude speculations of a novice, but the matured views and varied experience of many wise statesmen, and practical teachers and educators, in perfecting systems and institutions, through a succession of years, under the most diverse circumstances of government, society and religion.

Mr. Barnard has availed himself of a recent visit to Europe, to extend the inquiries which he originally made in 1835-6, and to collect recent documents not only respecting primary schools and the training of teachers, but in every department of the educational field.

The forthcoming volume will embrace the history and latest statistics of universities, public libraries, educational periodicals, ragged schools, &c. The whole will make a volume of over six hundred pages, octavo."—*Massachusetts Teacher*.

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BOOK NOTICES.

**HAND BOOKS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY AND ASTRONOMY; SECOND COURSE.** This volume contains treatises on Heat, Magnetism, common and voltaic Electricity, by Dr. Lardner, who is well known to all scientific men on both sides of the Atlantic. The work has been thoroughly revised by the American editor, and contains all the latest discoveries. Blanchard & Lea, Philadelphia.

**BLAKE'S AGRICULTURE FOR SCHOOLS.** This is a duodecimo volume of Reading Lessons and Exercises, calculated to familiarize the pupil with the fundamental truths of agricultural science. It is a good book, and intended for a good purpose. We should like to see it generally used. Mark H. Newman & Co., New York city.

## SCHEDULE OF INQUIRIES

TO BE MADE RESPECTING EVERY SCHOOL.

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### I.—NAME, TERRITORIAL CONDITION, POPULATION, AND PECUNIARY RESOURCES OF THE DISTRICT, OR LOCALITY OF THE SCHOOL.

1. Local, or neighborhood name?
2. Territorial extent? length? breadth?
3. Thickly or sparsely populated?
4. Population by last census; date of census?
5. Classification of population by age—(a) Number under 5 years of age? (b) between 5 and 15? (c) between 15 and 20?
6. Number of families residing in district?
7. Classification of families according to occupation—(a) Number engaged in agriculture; (b) do. in trade or shop-keeping; (c) do. in mechanic shops; (d) do. in factories or mills; (e) do. in navigation; (f) do. in banks; (g) do. in public offices; (h) clergymen; (i) lawyers; (j) physicians; (k) not actively engaged in any business; (l) day laborers?
8. Classification as to right of voting, whole number—(a) Number of voters as to municipal matters generally; (b) do. as to levying taxes; (c) do. as to establishing and regulating school?
9. Amount of valuation of taxable property—(a) Real estate? (b) personal? (c) mixed? (d) polls?
10. Amount of funds of all kinds (*except* school-houses, premises, and appendages,) belonging to school?
11. Amount of annual income—(a) State or town (other than district) fund? (b) do. property tax? (c) from district property tax? (d) from rate or tuition paid by parents? (e) from donations or subscriptions by individuals?
12. Number of schools in the district, of every grade, public and private?

### II.—SCHOOL PREMISES.

#### A. GENERAL.

1. Place where school is kept—(a) In building designed and used only for school? (b) in building built or used for other purpose?
2. In whom is the title to the site and school-house vested?
3. By whom was the site purchased, and building erected—(a) By committee of district? (b) gift of individuals?
4. Cost of school property at this date?
5. Is the district in debt for all, or any part of the same?
6. Who is responsible for the care and preservation of the school property?
7. Are there any regulations respecting it?

#### B. SITE.

1. Extent of the site in feet? length? breadth?
2. Cost of the same, and present value?
3. Nature—high, dry, exposed, or sheltered?
4. Condition—(a) Well drained? (b) bounded? (c) inclosed?
5. Neighborhood, distance from noisy shop or thoroughfare?
6. Convenient to the population? if not, could a site more central or accessible be readily obtained?
7. By whom is the site of school-house determined?
8. What distance must the pupils, generally, travel before reaching the school?
9. What is the nature or general condition of the roads?
10. Distance of front of school-house from the front line of the grounds?
11. Distance of rear of school from the rear line of the grounds?
12. Distance of each side of house from corresponding boundary of lot?
13. Is the yard properly graded, fitted up, and divided for a play-ground for each sex?
14. Can you suggest any improvement of play-ground?
15. Are suitable privies and urinals provided, and kept always neat?

## C. SCHOOL-HOUSE.

1. When was the school-house erected?
2. At what cost?
3. When was the house thoroughly repaired?
4. Present condition as to repair?
5. Material—stone, brick, or wood?
6. Roof—slate, tin, or wood shingles?
7. Interior—painted? papered?
8. External proportions—length, breadth, height from ground?
9. Is there a cellar under all, or any part of the building?
10. Is the cellar at all times dry, and properly drained and ventilated?
11. How high is the ground floor above the surface of cellar or ground beneath?
12. Number of floors, or stories, and height of each story?
13. Plan of each floor, on a separate paper, giving partitions, doors, and windows.
14. Is there one or more ante-rooms provided with hooks, or shelves, for outer garments, umbrellas, &c.?
15. Is there a scraper, and mat, and old broom at each outer door?
16. Is there (a) sink, basin, and towel; (b) water-pail, or pump, cup, and other conveniences?
17. Do boys and girls enter the building by the same door?
18. If there is two or more floors, are the stair-cases strongly built and safe? Do the doors open outwards?
19. Is each room well lighted?
20. Height of lower sash of the window from floor?
21. Are the sashes hung with weights?
22. Are the windows furnished with outside blinds or shutters, and with inside blinds and curtains?
23. How is the building warmed, by fireplace or stove for wood or coal? by heated air from furnace in the cellar?
24. What means are provided for ventilation, *i. e.*, for the escape of the air which has become vitiated by respiration and other causes, and for the introduction and diffusion of a constant and abundant supply of pure air in the right condition as to temperature and moisture?
25. Are the means of ventilation sufficient to secure the object, independent of doors and windows?
26. Are the flues for the escape of vitiated air, made tight or smooth (except the openings into the room) on the inside, and carried up in the inner wall, in as direct ascent as practicable, and above the highest point of the roof?
27. Are the openings for the escape of the vitiated air provided with valves and registers to regulate the quantity of air to pass through them?
28. Is there a capacious vessel, well provided with fresh water, on any furnace or stove?
29. Is there a thermometer in every room, and is the temperature in winter allowed to attain beyond 68 degrees Fahrenheit, at a level of four feet from the floor?
30. What are the arrangements for seating the pupils? a separate seat for each pupil? or for two? or a large number?
31. In the desks how much top surface is allowed to each pupil?
32. Are the seats in all cases with backs? and of varying height, so that the youngest and eldest scholar can be comfortably seated in them?
33. Is the arrangement of the seats and desks such as to allow of an aisle, or free passage of at least two feet around the outside of the room, and between each range of seats for two scholars, and to bring each pupil under the supervision of the teacher?
34. What accommodations are provided for the teacher?

*N. B.* If there is more than one school-room, most of the above inquiries must be answered in reference to each room.

## D. APPARATUS AND LIBRARY.

1. Is there a clock? a hand bell? compass? movable blackboard? terrestrial globe? real measures of all kinds, linear, superficial, solid and liquid? a collection of real objects?
2. What extent of blackboard, or black surface?
3. Is there a map of the city or town? county? state? United States? American continent? the world?
4. Is there a set of outline maps, and plates to facilitate map drawing?
5. Is there a numeral frame? a set of geometrical solids? blocks to illustrate cube root?



6. Are there charts illustrating the elements of the voice? the principles of elocution? analysis of sentences? the chronology of the world, and different nations? the geology of the state? the distribution of plants, and animals over the world? animal and vegetable physiology, &c.?

7. Is there a magic-lantern with diagrams, or slides to illustrate natural history? botany? astronomy? great events, and great names in history? costumes and manners of different nations, &c.?

8. Is there a collection of apparatus to illustrate the laws of matter? the laws of motion? mechanics? hydrostatics? hydraulics? pneumatics? electricity? optics? magnetism?

9. Is there a library of books of reference, such as a comprehensive dictionary of the English language; a Greek lexicon, and Latin do.; an encyclopedia; a gazetteer, &c.?

10. Is there a library of books for circulation? and if so, on what terms, and in what manner are the books drawn?

### III.—THE SCHOOL.

#### A. GENERAL.

1. What is the grade of the school? primary? secondary? superior?
2. On what principles is the grade of the school determined? by the sex? by the age or proficiency of the pupils?
3. By what authority or regulations are pupils admitted?
4. By whom is the teacher examined and employed, and to whom responsible?
5. In what manner is the teacher examined? by oral or written questions and answers? in public or private? alone, or with other candidates?
6. What evidence is required of good moral character? of aptness to teach? of ability to govern?
7. In what manner is the teacher inducted into his office?

*N. B. The remaining inquiries are to be addressed directly to the teacher.*

#### B. TEACHER.

1. Teacher's name?
2. Age and place of birth?
3. Have you attended a normal school? which, and how long?
4. Have you attended a college? which, and how long?
5. Have you attended an academy, or any other school of a higher grade than that in which you are now teaching? and how long?
6. How many sessions of a teacher's institute have you attended?
7. What books on the theory and practice of education have you read?
8. What books or documents on schools or education do you own?
9. What educational periodicals do you take?
10. Do you belong to any teacher's or educational association, and how many of its meetings have you attended during the last year?
11. Do you keep a journal of your reading on the subject of education, or of your observations in schools, or of your own plans and experiments, and of the improvements your experience suggests?
12. How long have you been employed in teaching, and in what grade of schools?
13. For how long a time are you engaged in this school?
14. Do you propose to make teaching your business for life?
15. How many hours daily are you occupied in the school?
16. Is your time wholly devoted to the business of the school? or is it partially employed in some other occupation? If so, what is the nature of it?
17. What is your compensation per month?

#### C. ATTENDANCE.

1. Do you keep a register of admission and attendance?
2. Number of scholars of all ages registered during the term? boys? girls?
3. How many, boys and girls respectively, between the ages of three and four? between four and five? five and six? six and seven? seven and eight? eight and nine? nine and ten? ten and eleven? eleven and twelve? twelve and thirteen? thirteen and fourteen? fourteen and fifteen? fifteen and sixteen? over sixteen?
4. At what age do pupils commonly enter, and at what age do they commonly leave school?
5. Do you have particular periods of the year at which pupils are admitted?
6. Is the admission of pupils strictly limited to those particular periods? or are they admitted at any period?
7. What proportion of your pupils attend regularly throughout the year or term, except in sickness?

8. How many attend *three-fourths* of the term? *one-half*? less than *one-half*? less than *one-fourth*?

9. How do you ascertain the causes of absence? By receiving a written excuse? by inquiring of the parents of the pupils? if by the latter, who makes the inquiry?

10. What measures do you adopt to secure regular attendance? by vacating their seats after a certain number of absences without excuse? by informing parents by weekly or monthly reports? by regulating the standing of pupils in part by their attendance?

11. Do you enforce punctuality, as well as regularity of attendance? and how?

12. How many hours in the day is your school in session? and how many intervals for recreation?

13. How many half days in the week do you keep school? do you have half holidays on Saturday and Wednesday?

14. When and for how long a time are your vacations and holidays?

#### D. CLASSIFICATION.

1. Are the pupils classified according to age?

2. Is there a distinct classification of the pupils, according to their proficiency in each branch of study? *i. e.*, are they classified according to their proficiency in spelling? in reading? in arithmetic? or does their proficiency in one branch, say of reading, regulate the classification in all the branches?

3. Into how many classes, in each branch respectively, are your pupils arranged? and how many pupils in each class?

4. Do you have a time-table, with an exercise for a specified portion of each session?

5. How many hours, or half-hours, are devoted to each subject, daily? weekly?

6. Do you keep class-registers, in which every absence, recitation, and the standing of each member is noted?

#### E. COURSE OF INSTRUCTION.

##### 1. PHYSICAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Have you reflected on the importance of pure air, correct personal habits, cleanliness, and exercise, in the school training of your pupils?

2. Have you devised a series of games in which your pupils can, at proper times, engage, and which call for the exercise of strength and activity in all the different muscles?

3. Is the play-ground furnished with the circular swing? vaulting frame? climbing pole, or other simpler forms of gymnastic machinery?

4. Is any portion of the play-ground covered, to protect it from rain and inclement weather?

5. Do your pupils meet in the play-ground before entering the school, and how often do they resort to it during the school session?

6. Are they superintended during their sports and exercises?

7. How do you secure the requisite purity and temperature in the atmosphere of the school and class-rooms, at all times?

8. Do you attend to the postures of your pupils at their desks, and recitations?

9. Do you make recitation, reading aloud, and singing, the means of physical training?

10. Do you apply the principles of physiology as developed in text-books, or in your oral instructions to the practical duties of the school-room, and of daily experience?

##### 2. MORAL AND RELIGIOUS DEPARTMENT.

1. Is the school daily assembled and dismissed with religious exercises? with prayer? reading of the scriptures?

2. Is the Bible or selections read as a religious exercise every day in classes? or by a portion of the school? or by the teacher?

3. Are the pupils required to commit to memory psalms, passages of scriptures, &c.?

4. Do you give a systematic course of lessons from scripture?

5. Do all children receive religious instruction daily? or is it restricted to particular days, and to the older and more advanced pupils?

6. In case any parent objects to the course pursued in conducting religious exercises, or in imparting religious instruction, what course do you pursue? Are the children of such parents allowed to be absent at the time? or excused from taking part in such exercise or instruction?

7. Has any attempt been made by the clergy of different denominations to give religious instruction on certain days in the week, to the pupils of their several persuasions? and if so, with what success?

8. Apart from direct religious instruction and influence, what do you do to form moral habits, the habit of always acting conscientiously? of punctuality and regularity? of diligence? of perseverance? of forethought? of kindness? of courtesy? of mercy to inferior animals? of forgiveness? of charitableness? of justice? of respect to property? of respect for superiors? of submission to the authority of law? of truth? of reverence for God and obedience to his laws?

9. Do you administer the government of your school with special reference to the moral culture of your pupils? in holding out motives to study and good behavior? in the punishments inflicted, &c.?

### 3. INTELLECTUAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Have you formed, for your own guidance, any scheme of the work to be done by you in developing, training, and storing the minds of your pupils? of the order in which the several powers or faculties of the mind should be developed, so that its growth shall be symmetrical and vigorous?

2. By what studies, and in what manner, do you cultivate the power and habit of accurate observation? memory? comparison? calculation? reflection? reasoning? imagination? expression?

### 4. ÆSTHETICAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Do you embrace in your ideas of primary education the development of the sentiment of the beautiful, and a love of order, harmony, and suitableness, in nature, art, literature, and life?

2. Do you make occasional excursions to interesting natural objects in your neighborhood, improve the principal phenomena of nature as they occur, employ music, drawing, and recitation as elements in this branch of education?

3. Do you have regard to this department in cultivating order, cleanliness, and grace? in the personal habits of your pupils?

### 5. INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

1. Are any industrial branches taught, such as sewing, knitting, dress-making, &c.? at what hours? and by whom?

2. Do you communicate a practical knowledge of the elementary principles of domestic and rural economy, and of technology?

### STUDIES AND TEXT-BOOKS.

1. Enumerate the branches taught, and the number of pupils attending to each branch?

2. Enumerate the books used in teaching each branch?

3. Mention what books are used by each class?

4. By what authority are the books introduced into the school?

5. Do you experience any difficulty in inducing parents to provide the necessary books?

6. How many pupils are unprovided with all the necessary books and stationery?

7. Can all the books required be obtained without difficulty in the neighborhood?

8. Is there any plan adopted for supplying poor children with books, slates, &c., gratuitously or at reduced prices?

9. Are the school-books used considered by you in every respect satisfactory?

10. Have you any improvement to suggest in the books, or mode of supplying the school?

11. Are writing materials provided by the children? by the teacher? by the local school committee? or how?

### METHODS.

1. To what extent, and in what branches, do you practice individual teaching?

2. To what extent do you practice the collective and simultaneous method, or address your teaching to a class or the school?

3. Are your collective lessons devoted to subjects on which improvement depends on the amount of individual practice, as reading and spelling, or to subjects connected with manners, morals, and religion?

4. Do you aim to characterize your collective lessons by simplicity, both of manner and illustration, and by animation, both of voice and manner?

5. Do you rest satisfied if you obtain an answer to a question from one, or do you repeat and remodel the question till the matter is understood and answered by all?

6. Do you employ your pupils as monitors of order? attendance, &c.?

7. To what extent do you employ your pupils as monitors in teaching?

8. Do you train every monitor in every lesson he is to teach?

9. Do your monitors receive any remuneration or distinction?

10. What branches are taught orally?
11. Are the pupils exercised in catechising each other?
12. Are the pupils exercised in giving written answers to written questions?
13. Do you occasionally require your pupils to write from memory an abstract of the lesson?
14. Do you call on your scholars to recite individually in the order in which they are arranged in the class?
15. Do you put out your questions to the whole class or school, and then point to the individual to answer?
16. Do you require every error to be corrected by the pupil making it, after it has been corrected by another pupil, or by yourself?
17. Do you aim at giving your pupils a thorough acquaintance with a few subjects, or a superficial acquaintance with many?
18. Do you feel at the close of every lesson that your pupils really understand what they have been attending to, and that the subject has become a means of intellectual development?
19. Are lessons in the various branches prescribed for preparation at home?
20. Do you have recourse occasionally to singing, or gymnastic exercises, to relieve the mind, and sustain the attention of your pupils during the progress of a lesson?
21. For how many consecutive minutes do you keep a class at recitation or lesson?
22. To what extent do you practice the system of interrogation, *i. e.*, a plan of carefully devised questions, by which the limits of the pupil's knowledge is discovered, and he, at the same time, is led to infer some new truth?
23. Do you require frequent and full explanation from your pupils of the meaning and etymologies of words, used in their spelling, reading, and other lessons?
24. Do you avoid indefinite questions, and such as, by admitting of only "yes," or "no" for an answer, encourage guessing?
25. Do you employ the elliptic, or suggestive system, in which the pupil is expected to fill up in a statement an important omission, or to infer the fact or truth of a proposition which logically follows from so much as is stated?
26. However important you may deem one or more of these or other methods, do you aim to vary the same and to adapt your methods to the study, the difficulty, the class, or the individual in hand?
27. Do you aim to bring your own mind and heart into immediate and creative contact with the mind and heart of each pupil?
28. Give a statement of any peculiarity of method pursued by you?

#### SPELLING.

1. Do you classify your school in reference to spelling, as distinct from reading?
2. Do you confine the spelling exercise to a text-book in spelling?
3. Do you require a definition or explanation of every word put out in the spelling exercise?
4. Do you sometimes test correctness in spelling, by dictating sentences containing one or more words of the spelling lesson, to be written on the blackboard or slate?
5. Do you put out the words to be spelled in the order in which they stand in the spelling-book?
6. Do you call on the pupils to spell in the order in which they stand in the class?
7. Do you put out the word to the whole class, and then designate the pupil who shall spell the same?
8. Do you practice your pupils in both oral and written spelling of the more difficult words?
9. Do you require the pupil to write on the blackboard the word he has misspelled orally?
10. Do you practice the method of dictating a number of words to be written by the class as a general exercise?
11. Do you require that the pupils should pass their slates or papers containing their spelling lesson, to be corrected by each other?
12. Do you require each pupil to rewrite correctly, and spell orally, the words which have been misspelled in the writing exercise?
13. Do you require the pupil to pronounce the word before he attempts to spell the same?
14. Do you require the pupil to pronounce each syllable as he spells it, together with the syllable already pronounced?
15. Do you require your elder pupils to copy pieces of poetry and exercise in grammar, with a view to improvement in spelling?
16. Do you require frequent exercise in original composition, partly to test and improve their habits of spelling, as well as of punctuation and capitalization?



## READING.

1. Do you define and limit the portion to be read by a class?
2. Is the portion assigned of such moderate length as to allow of its being read three or four times at each lesson?
3. Do you read all or any portion of the lesson at the time it is given out, by the way of example?
4. Do you give illustration or explanation of obscure illusions, difficult words, and point to sources of information as to such and similar difficulty?
5. Do you require every member of the class to be attentive while one is reading?
6. Do you call on the class to read in the order in which they are seated?
7. Do you commence each lesson at the same place in the class?
8. Do you exact particular attention to the position of the reader?
9. Do you require that he throw his shoulders back, and hold the book at the right distance, and elevation?
10. Do you try to break up monotonous tones by requiring the pupil to write a sentence on the blackboard, and then to read the same?
11. Do you allow, as an occasional exercise, a class, or each member of a class, to select a piece for reading?
12. Do you point out on the map, or require the pupil to point out all places occurring in the lesson read?
13. Do you encourage mutual questioning on the part of the class, as to meaning of words?
14. Do you encourage a free detection of errors?
15. Do you require at the beginning, or close of a lesson, an explanation of the general character, style, and subject of the lesson?
16. Do you teach the definitions, and etymologies, and spelling of words in the reading lessons?
17. Do you occasionally require the class to read in concert?
18. Do you occasionally require the class to write a composition on the subject of the lesson?
19. Do you require every error in reading to be corrected by the pupil making it?

## COMPOSITION.

1. Do you classify your pupils in reference to writing composition?
2. Do you accustom your youngest pupils to write or print words and short sentences on the slate, from your dictation?
3. Do you ask them to print or write something about what they have seen in coming to school, or read in the reading lesson?
4. As a preliminary exercise in composition, do you engage them in familiar *talk* about something they have seen in their walk, and has happened in and about the school? and when they have got ideas, and can clothe them orally in words, do you allow them as a privilege to write or print the same on the slate or paper?
5. Do you give out a number of words, and then ask your pupils to frame sentences in which those words are used?
6. Do you require your older pupils to keep a journal, or give an account of the occurrences of the day, as an exercise in composition?
7. Do you instruct your pupils as to the most approved form of dating, commencing, and closing a letter, and then of folding and addressing the same for the post-office?
8. Do you require your pupils to write a letter in answer to some supposed inquiries, or about some matter of business?
9. Do you request your older pupils to write out what they can recollect of a sermon or lecture they have heard, or of a book they have been reading?

## GRAMMAR.

1. Do you make your pupils understand that the rules of grammar are only the recognized usages of language?
2. Do you give elementary instruction as to parts of speech and rules of construction, in connection with the reading lessons?
3. Do you accustom your pupils to construct sentences of their own, using different parts of speech, on the blackboard?
4. Have you formed the habit of correct speaking, so as to train, by your own example, your pupils to be good practical grammarians?

## ARITHMETIC.

1. Are your pupils classified in arithmetic?
2. Do you have a specified time assigned for attention by classes, or the whole school, to this study?
3. Do you use a *numeral frame*, and commence with and constantly refer to *sensible objects* in giving elementary ideas of number?
4. Do you question at every step in an arithmetical operation?
5. Do you explain easily and constantly all terms and marks?
6. Do you accustom your pupils to connect the abstract principle of the book with the objects about them?
7. Do you make constant use of the blackboard?
8. Do you go through a regular system of mental arithmetic with each class or pupil?
9. Do you allow a pupil or class to proceed to a second example, unless you are quite sure the first is thoroughly understood?
10. Do you always give one or more additional examples under each rule than are to be found in the text-book?

## PENMANSHIP.

1. How many pupils attend to penmanship?
2. Does your whole school attend to writing at the same time?
3. How often do they attend to writing, in morning and afternoon, and how long at each exercise?
4. Have you any physical exercises to give strength and flexibility to the hand and wrist?
5. Do you require the books to be kept clean, free from blots, and without the corners being turned down?
6. Have you a system of teaching penmanship?
7. Do you practice setting the copies in each book?
8. Do you occasionally write in chalk on the blackboard a copy, and require the whole school to imitate your mode of doing the same?
9. How are the pupils supplied with copy-books? with ink? with pens?
10. Do you instruct your pupils in the art of making a pen?
11. Do you use metal or quill pens?
12. Do you show your pupils how to clean, and repair metal pens with a file?
13. Do you require your pupils to remove every ink-spot made by them, accidentally or otherwise, on the desk or floor?
14. Do you allow the ink to remain in the ink pots, or the ink pots in the desk, except when the class or school is engaged in writing?
15. Do you occasionally encourage your pupils to exchange specimens of their penmanship with pupils of some neighboring school or schools?

## GEOGRAPHY.

1. Have you a compass, and do you make your pupils acquainted with the four cardinal points of the heavens, and have you the same marked on the floor or ceiling of your school-room?
2. Do you learn them how to find the north star at night, and to locate the north wherever they may be by day?
3. Have you a terrestrial globe divided into two equal parts, and connected by a hinge, to give a correct idea of the two hemispheres, or map of the world?
4. Have you a large globe painted black, on which the pupils may give an outline in chalk, of latitude, longitude, zones, &c.?
5. In the absence of any globe, do you construct a globe, or make use of some common object like an apple, for this purpose?
6. Do you aim to give your young pupils clear and practical ideas of distance and direction, and the elementary ideas of geography, by constant and familiar reference to the well known objects and physical features of their own neighborhood?
7. Have you a map of the district, town, county, or state in which the school is located?
8. Do you require your pupils to make a map of the school-room, or play-ground, and from that explain the principles on which maps are constructed, and what they are made to represent?
9. Do you commence map-drawing by accustoming your pupils to lay off the lines of latitude and longitude on the blackboard and slate?
10. Do you find any advantages in placing the map on the north wall of the room, or having the class recite facing the north?
11. Do you explain the different scales on which maps are constructed?

12. Do you occasionally require your pupils to designate a particular place both on the globe and on the map, and also to point with the finger in the direction of the same?
13. Do you connect the teaching of geography with the reading lessons, and especially with the study of history?
14. Do you occasionally test their knowledge of geography by questioning them as to places and productions of different climates mentioned in advertisements, and the shipping intelligence in the newspapers?
15. Do you occasionally take a book of travels, or a voyage, and require your pupils to trace the route of the traveler, on a map of their own construction?
16. Do you, especially with the older pupils, teach geography by *topics*—rivers, mountains, lakes?
17. Do you accustom your older pupils to construct their own geographical tables, in which the different physical features of a country, continent, or the earth, as mountains, rivers, &c., are classified by their distinguishing element, such as length, height, &c.?

## HISTORY.

1. At what age do your pupils commence the study of history?
2. Do you, at any period of his education, endeavor to give each pupil a clear and practical idea of the measurement of time, *i. e.*, of the comparative length of a minute, an hour, a day, a week, a month, and a year?
3. Do you aim in any way to make him conceive the want of his own experience during a day, a week, or year, as constituting his own chronology and history for that period of time, and so apply the idea to the chronology and history of a people, or state?
4. Do you modify the exercise of map-drawing, by requiring your pupils to fill up an outline map of the world, with the nations as they were at a particular epoch? and so of each country, as different exercises?
5. Do you occasionally require your pupils to denote on an outline map of the world, the birth-place (date, &c.) of celebrated persons who have led armies, founded colonies, or changed the moral aspects of the age in which they lived?
6. Do you always require your pupils to study history with constant reference to geography and the map?
7. Do you accustom your pupils to make their own tables and chronology?
8. Do you occasionally give out a particular period in the history of a country, and the world, as an exercise in composition or conversation, pointing out several authors to be consulted on the subject?
9. Do you make your lesson in history at the same time a reading lesson?
10. Do you aim, by the aid of pictorial representation, poetic extracts, and vivid oral description, to enlist the imagination in realizing the scenery, occupations, and customs of the people whose history they are studying?
11. Do you avoid the common method of assigning a certain number of pages for a lesson, and requiring the pupils to answer the prepared questions thereon?
12. Do you aim to conduct your lessons in history mainly with a view of showing them how to study it by themselves, and after they leave school, than of going over much ground?
13. Do you aim to show the influence which certain individuals, and classes of men, exerted on the age and country in which they lived?

## GOVERNMENT.

1. Do you enter on your duties in the school-room in the right spirit, in good health, and with the right preparation for your work?
2. Do you aim to make your children *love* you, by exhibiting a strong sympathy in their pursuits, and a fondness for their company?
3. Do you attend strictly to punctuality, regularity, and order in your own duties?
4. Do you perform your work with animation, exercise constant patience, and never lose your temper?
5. Do you exhibit firmness, impartiality, kindness, and parental regard toward your scholars?
6. Do you see that your pupils are all properly seated and every way physically comfortable, as to light, air, and temperature?
7. Do you see that all your children at all times have something to do, and a *motive* for doing it?
8. Do you make order, quietness, and obedience, the *habit* of your school?
9. Do you aim to enlist the affection and activity of the older pupils in doing good to you and the school?
10. Do you give rewards of any kind? places in the class? ticket? prizes, as part of your system of government?

11. What punishments are inflicted? corporal punishment? confinement? detention after school is dismissed? loss of place in class? imposition of tasks? and for what offenses are these and other punishments inflicted?

12. If corporal punishment is inflicted, what is the instrument used? When and where is the chastisement given?

13. Are you careful to avoid a spirit of fault-finding, and to improve every proper occasion for a judicious use of praise?

14. Are you careful to administer rebuke more in sorrow than in anger, and in a way to evince a real regard for the feelings of the delinquent?

15. Do you try to secure the co-operation of parents in the government of the school?

16. Have you had cases of thoroughly incorrigible pupils? and if so, what did you do with them?

17. Do you find that emulation, or the desire of surpassing, can be employed as a motive to study and good behavior, without stirring up jealousy, envy, and ill-will, and be made subordinate to the cultivation of kind and generous feelings?

18. Are your rewards bestowed mainly for evidence of intellectual capacity, or for habitual industry, regular acquisition, and general good conduct in relation to the duties of the school?

19. Are your punishments unmixed with exhibition of personal feelings, such as anger, scorn, sneer, or triumph?

20. Do you pay proper regard to the physical condition of the culprit, such as a disordered nervous system, natural irritability and restlessness of temperament, or debility of body, in administering punishment?

21. Have you observed that punishment is effectual in proportion to its certainty, more than to its severity? and more from the manner, than its frequency?

#### EXAMINATIONS.

1. Have you periodical reviews of lessons? weekly? monthly? quarterly?

2. Do you conduct the reviews by oral or written questions and answers?

3. Do public examinations of the pupils take place periodically? monthly? quarterly? half yearly? annually?

4. Who conducts the examinations? Legally appointed committees? Disinterested persons on invitation? The teacher?

5. On what principle are the examinations conducted? Is the whole month's, quarter's, half-year's, year's work stated, and the portions examined fixed by the examiners or teacher?

6. Are parents invited to be present?

7. Do many parents attend? How can they be induced to attend more frequently?

#### PARENTAL AND PUBLIC INTEREST.

1. How many visits have been made to your school during the current year or term, by committees?

2. How many parents have visited your school during the same period?

3. How many visits, official and otherwise, have been paid to your school during the year or term?

4. How many times have you been invited to the homes of your pupils?

5. Specify the circumstances that appear to you to operate most in retarding, in your locality, the progress of sound and comprehensive education?

6. What improvements do you consider desirable in the organization or administration of your school?



# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. II. PROVIDENCE, JAN'RY AND FEB'RY, 1853. NOS. 1 & 2.

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## R E P O R T

OF THE COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

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*To the Honorable General Assembly of the State of Rhode  
Island and Providence Plantations.*

JANUARY SESSION, A. D. 1853.

The Commissioner of Public Schools presents the annual report required of him by law.

The accompanying abstracts of the returns from the several towns will inform the Legislature in regard to the apportionment and expenditure of the public money, and the statistics of the schools

The returns for the last year were more exact and full than those of the previous year; and it is hoped that the returns for the present year will be complete. It is gratifying to perceive that a large number of the towns are increasing their appropriations for schools, and it will be for the wisdom of the Legislature to determine whether the time has not arrived, or will not soon arrive, when public opinion and the condition of the treasury will justify and sustain an increase of our State appropriation.

Many of the School Committees last year availed themselves of the privilege given them by the revised law of printing their town reports. The money cannot be applied to a better purpose, or in a way to do more good. By printing and distributing to every family an account of the condition of the schools of the town, the general interest in the subject is kept alive and increased, errors are exposed and improvements suggested.

### DEAF AND DUMB.

The following are the names of the persons who have received the benefit of the appropriation from its commencement :—

		Age when adm.	Entered.	Left.
Fanny Lanphear,	Hopkinton,	26,	May, 1845,	May, 1846.
Abigal Slocum,	Portsmouth,	25,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
Peleg Slocum,	Portsmouth,	20,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
Mary E. Slocum,	Portsmouth,	14,	May, 1845,	May, 1847.
James Budlong,	Warwick,	20,	Aug, 1845,	May, 1847.
Charles H. Steere,	Glocester,	15,	May, 1846,	May, 1850.
Phebe A Winsor,	Johnston,	8,	May, 1846,	1852.
John W. Davenport,	Piverton,	13,	May, 1847.	
Samuel W. Thompson,	Glocester,	11,	May, 1847.	
Mercy E. Tanner,	Coventry,	10,	May, 1847,	1852.
Minerva Mowry,	Smithfield,	13,	May, 1848,	May, 1851.
Samuel G. Greene,	Hopkinton,	11,	July, 1849,	Aug. 1851.
George Gavit,	Westerly,	10,	May, 1850.	
Wm. E. Slocum,	Cumberland,		Sept, 1852.	
Agnes McLaughlin	North Prov.		Sept, 1852.	
Mary E. Wilber,	Little Compt.		Sept. 1852.	

The orders for their support this year have been—

June 21, 1852,	\$250 00
Jan. 24, 1853,	\$66 67

The beneficiaries of this State have been sent to the "American Asylum at Hartford, for the Education and Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb." The time for admission of pupils is the third Wednesday of September in every year. The charge is \$100 per annum. In case of sickness, extra charges are made. Persons applying for admission must be between the ages of eight and twenty-five years; must be of good natural intellect, capable of forming and joining letters

with a pen legibly and correctly ; free from immoralities of conduct and from contagious disease. The charge for board includes washing, fuel, lights, stationery and tuition. No deductions are made for absence, except on account of sickness.

### THE BLIND.

The following persons have received the benefit of our State appropriation for the blind :—

		Entered.	Left.
William Hatch,	Bristol,	January, 1845	
Oliver Caswell,	Jamestown,	January, 1845.	January, 1851.
Elizabeth Eddy,	Warren,	January, 1845,	January, 1848.
Charles Coddington,	Newport,	March, 1846.	
Maria Dunham,	Newport,	March, 1846.	
Marcia Thurber,	Providence,	June, 1846,	June, 1847.
Alexander Kenyon,	S. Kingstown,	October, 1847.	
Wm. Tallowfield,	Providence,	Nov. 1849,	Nov. 1850.
James H. Graham,	Newport,	May, 1850.	
Elizabeth Denuely,	S. Kingstown,	October 1851.	
Lucy Ross,	N. Prov.	Dec. 1852.	

The orders for their support this year have been —

May	24, 1852,	\$250 00
January	24, 1853,	\$650 00

The beneficiaries of this State have been sent to the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind, at Boston. The charge at that Institution is \$160 per annum, which covers board, washing, medicine, use of books, musical instruments, and all expenses except clothing and traveling expenses. Pupils must be under fifteen when admitted, and of good character ; free from epilepsy or any contagious disease ; and the friends of the applicant are required to answer certain queries respecting his age, and the cause and degree of his blindness, and to furnish an obligation that when discharged he shall be removed without expense to the Institution. If possible, pupils should be taught the letters before going to the Institution. Books in raised letters for the blind can be procured there.

### IDIOTS AND IMBECILES.

Four persons only, have yet received the benefit of any portion of the State appropriation for Idiots and Imbeciles ; of

these, two are at the Massachusetts School for idiotic and feeble minded youth, (corner of First and K streets, South Boston,) one at the Barre School, and one under the care of Mr. J. B. Richards, at Philadelphia.

The orders for their support have been —

March,	1852,	\$100 00
April,	1852,	\$100 00
Sept.	1852,	\$100 00
Jan. 24,	1853,	\$100 00

For admission to the Massachusetts School, it is recommended that they be between the ages of six and twelve; not epileptic, insane or incurably hydrocephalic or paralytic. The parents are required to provide clothing and to give surety that the pupil shall be removed without expense to the Institution when discharged. Pupils are first taken for one month on trial. The terms at this Institution for beneficiaries, for board and tuition, are generally \$150 per annum, but vary somewhat, according to the condition of the pupil.

### EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

Having for a long time felt the want of some periodical publication as a means of circulating information among school officers and teachers, the subscriber last year undertook the publication of one. His predecessor had maintained such a publication and had found great advantage in so doing.

Knownig that no such publication could be supported by subscribers, and that if it was sent to subscribers only, it would never reach those persons and those portions of the State where it would be most needed, it was determined at the beginning to send the Educational Magazine gratis to the Chairmen and Clerks of School Committees, and to the Clerk of every School District, and to rely upon contributions principally, for its support. About one-third of the amount necessary to pay the expenses has been so raised, and other individuals have expressed willingness to contribute a portion of the remainder.

By means of such a magazine, all information can be speedi-



ly circulated. School documents, changes in the law, decisions on the construction of the law, information of educational and teacher's meetings and their proceedings, can be made public and brought to the knowledge of those most interested.

The subscriber has cheerfully borne the trouble of editing and managing the Magazine, and a portion of the pecuniary risk, for the sake of the benefit to be derived from it.

### NORMAL SCHOOL.

The last autumn a Normal School was established in the city of Providence, by Messrs. Greene, Russell, Colburn and Guyot. The term commenced on the first of November, and the school will close about the first of April.

Instruction is here given in the modes of teaching, and by the ablest practical Teachers. The gentlemen concerned are all distinguished and well known in their several departments. Prof. Greene as a grammarian, Mr. Russell as an elocutionist, Mr. Colburn as a mathematician, and Prof. Guyot in geography.

The school will be opened again the next fall and winter. The success so far has equalled the expectations of its best friends. A large number of teachers have been in constant attendance from the commencement.

I have no hesitation in saying that this institution established under private auspices, is more likely to succeed, more likely to do good and to realize the proper idea of a Normal School, than any institution established under corporate or State patronage, with permanent officers and fixed salaries, could possibly do. The tendency of the latter is continually to degenerate.

The present institution on its present basis, may well be commended to the benevolence of the public. It may need aid and should receive it. It well deserves it.

## OF TEACHER'S MEETINGS AND IMPROVING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

During the past year as in previous years, meetings have been held in different parts of the State, for the gratuitous instruction of those Teachers who attended. These meetings are generally denominated "Teacher's Institutes," and continue for one week. Lectures are delivered upon the various modes of teaching in the different branches of education, discussions are held upon different topics, in which the lecturers and teachers take part, and addresses are delivered to the parents and others who are assembled together, frequently in large numbers, by the interest they excite. The last of these meetings was held at Central Falls, and is considered to have been one of the most interesting and useful ever held in this State.

Meetings of this sort are common in the New England and Nothern States. The credit of having originated them is due to our former Commissioner of Public Schools, who when Superintendent of Common Schools in Connecticut, organized a meeting for this purpose in the autumn of 1839, and similar meetings were held in that State under his care in the year 1840.

Of the utility of these meetings, it is believed that the public mind is by this time fully satisfied. They are necessary to produce an ambition and to afford opportunities for individual and mutual improvement, and to create and preserve an *esprit du corps*, without which improvement would be almost impossible.

Other professions and trades have long ago realized the importance of such meetings. Our clergy of the different denominations have their regular associations for intercommunication. The men of science in Europe and America have for many years held their annual meetings for the advancement of science. Our medical men hold their regular meetings in the several States, and have lately formed a national association. The mechanical trades have also their

periodical gatherings; indeed, association and incorporation were among the first causes of the elevation of the trades in the social scale. The friends of the various plans of benevolence and reform find these a most important aid to the success of their enterprises.

Take the case of a physician in a country village. He has received perhaps what was thought at the time a complete education for his profession. He retires to his country practice. From want of use, much of his acquired-knowledge soon fades from his memory. New discoveries in science are making, of which he never hears; new diseases appear and new modes of ministering to old diseases are found out. Hence the almost necessity to him of keeping up an acquaintance with the periodical literature of his profession and of frequent meetings with his fellows, if he would keep his mind active and well informed, render himself useful to his fellow men, or even if he regards merely the respectability of his standing in his profession.

So with the teacher. In the school, while learning, he has associates to cheer him in his progress. But when he begins to teach, he is thrown almost entirely upon his own resources. If he unfortunately commences in the neighborhood where he was born and brought up and is well known, he is looked upon by many with jealousy, as setting himself up to be a little better and know a little more than the rest of us. "Is not this Joseph's son?" If he goes among strangers, he has to endure the distrust of many, is looked upon by the children as their coming tyrant, by older boys as one with whom they are to have a struggle for physical superiority, and from none does he meet with any charitable allowance for his errors or inexperience.

In most professions a certain amount of learning is expected, which can be obtained by application and toil. In ordinary employments, honesty, industry and strict attention to business are all that the public expect, and will generally ensure a competent support.

Not so with the teacher. Consider for a moment how great our expectations are in regard to the qualifications of a good teacher, and we shall probably be surprised, not that a few fall short, but that so many come up to them.

We expect of him a degree of learning in different branches which can only be acquired by close application, which probably injures his health and secludes him from knowledge of his fellow-men. And then we expect of him a knowledge of human nature, of the feelings and passions of men, women and children, which can only be acquired by a constant and long experience and association with them, which would give little time to study. And we expect of him, also, a physical constitution to endure continual mental labor and ever recurring perplexities, more wearing than any manual labor.

Of a teacher in higher departments, a professor in a college for example, we only expect knowledge, and an ability to communicate it. He has little trouble with governing, and he has a strong outward authority to support him. But of the teacher of a common school we expect knowledge, an ability to communicate it, (a science of itself,) health to endure any and all things, a knowledge of the passions to enable him to govern without corporal punishment, or if corporal punishment is used, we expect of him a coolness and discretion to govern himself in the most exciting circumstances, to know just how far to go in punishing, so as not to overstep the limit of the law, a *reasonable* degree of punishment. We expect him to be doctor enough to look out for the physical health of his pupils—enough of a minister to look out for their morals; and all this we expect, not from young men and young women, but from boys and girls from sixteen to twenty years of age.

Well then may our surprise be, not that a few fail, but that so many succeed. And the lesson I would draw from these considerations is—not that we should not endeavor to obtain all these qualifications in the teachers we employ,—not that teachers should not aim at excellence in all these respects; but a lesson of forbearance and charity for their short comings



The teacher who devotes himself to his profession from proper motives and with proper zeal, is entitled to our most charitable construction of his motives and his acting—none more so.

And these considerations lead us also, to see the utility of associations and frequent meeting together, to teachers. The art of communicating knowledge does not necessarily accompany the possession of it. The Teacher who has obtained his education finds that he has a new art to learn. And even if he has studied theories and teaching in books or normal schools, he finds difficulties in the practice. And the art of government too he has to learn. He carries his difficulties with him to the meetings of his fellow teachers. He there receives instructions from those who are his seniors in years and experience, he consults with his fellows, discusses modes of teaching and government, and what he sees and hears which is applicable to his own difficulties, makes a permanent impression on him. No knowledge is so valuable as that derived from our own experience. And next to that is the instruction which we receive from the accumulated experience of others, which happens to meet and explain the difficulties we presently feel, which satisfies some present want of the mind. How often do we read a book—ably written it may be—which makes no impression on us and is soon forgotten. Let us read the same book at another time, when its instructions meet something in our recent experience, when its sentiments seem to chime in with the tendency of our own thoughts, and it makes an impression on us never to be forgotten. We read a history and we forget it. But let us become interested in some recent event from reading or conversation, and the desire to trace the chain of causes which have led to it, makes every thing that relates to it interesting. We may study a theory of teaching, and may perhaps have a little amateur practice with it, but there is no instruction so valuable as that which we receive after we have met with difficulties ourselves; it becomes incorporated into our very modes of thought and action, a part of our very life. And here is the great value of

the instruction teachers receive or may receive at these meetings—it meets difficulties they have actually felt and of which they want a solution.

But there is another and perhaps greater benefit resulting from these meetings. The teacher necessarily pursues his vocation at a distance from his fellow teachers, and often meets with but little sympathy. People, generally, but imperfectly understand the perplexities of his occupation. He must plod along in his course, relying only on his own energy and endurance. He is very apt, too, to become despondent, exaggerating his own troubles and imagining that the like never happened to any one before. He meets here with friends who are engaged in the same business, who have experienced the same troubles, and who can sympathize with him in his labors. He no longer feels alone in the world. He begins to realize too, that he belongs to a profession, one of the most honorable and influential in society, and that the honor and respectability of this profession depend in some measure upon his own conduct as a member of it, and to the motives which before sustained him in the discharge of his duty are now added others, the desire not to dishonor his profession and the desire of acquiring a respectable standing in it.

In regard to the mode of conducting these meetings and the plan of the lectures and studies to be attended to at them, it has been customary very much to confine the range of subjects to those actually taught in the schools. Discussions upon subjects of school government or of teaching have very profitably occupied a portion of the time, as it is in these chiefly that the teachers present can bring out the results of their own experience, and can suggest for solution the difficulties they themselves have met with or anticipate. Addresses to the teachers and the parents present upon various points of duty connected with education, have also formed a part of the general plan.

It has been customary, as just observed, to confine the lectures and instruction very much to the subjects actually

taught in the schools, not in the higher schools but in the common and ordinary schools. Reading and writing, grammar and arithmetic are fundamental branches, and no one would think of neglecting them, and in reading and grammar our schools and our teachers themselves certainly need improvement. In some schools a retrograde movement in these branches would be impossible.

But while these fundamental branches should not be neglected, the propriety of devoting the time exclusively to them, may well be questioned.

The teachers have arrived at an age when a more general acquaintance with the various branches of literature and science may be of great advantage to them. This general acquaintance serves to enlarge and liberalize their minds and to give them grander ideas of destiny and of duty. True, a great deal of this knowledge must necessarily be superficial, but not consequently useless. Few can be proficient in astronomy, but who would therefore shut his eyes to the sight of the stars, and close his mind to the exciting thoughts and glorious imaginings they give rise to! But the acquaintance with various sciences, aids and elevates not merely by enlarging the mind and increasing its general power, but the different sciences are so related and connected and dependent upon each other, that each one helps us in attaining others, and the further we advance in our education the more we shall be convinced of this truth.

So that even if the teachers are not to teach all these branches, they are themselves benefitted, and indirectly their scholars receive the benefit of it. It is a great error to suppose that a teacher need know only the one or two branches which he is called to teach, and that if he is just ahead of his scholars in those branches it is sufficient. If I were addressing an audience in some country district, on no point would I labor to convince them more than on this. Our children are all small, they say, and such a one, whom we can get very cheap, can teach them what they need to know, as well as a

more learned teacher. I will do them the justice to say that I believe the employment of poor teachers in country districts does not always proceed from the mean motive of stinting money from their children's schooling, but because they really believe that the poor teacher is good enough for children as small and no farther advanced than theirs. One of the greatest of errors. No degree of learning or experience or acquaintance with the human mind, should be deemed too great for those who are to be employed to lay the foundations of knowledge in the young, a work which if badly done it may require the work of succeeding years to undo.

I have said that to make a good teacher requires a great deal of discretion, and it certainly requires some discretion for a teacher to make the best use of what he hears and sees at teachers' meetings or institutes. It may be profitable to him at his age to learn a variety of things which yet he should not undertake to teach in all cases, and to scholars of all ages; and he will hear from different teachers and even from the class instructors many plans of teaching which he should be very cautious about adopting. What may have proved successful in the case of another school may not suit the circumstances of his school. Hence while he should hear all sides, discuss with all, receive hints and suggestions from all, he should adopt only such new modes as his own judgment tells him are suited to himself and his own peculiar circumstances.

But perhaps the greatest danger of the times to which the teacher is exposed is the tendency, and which may in some cases be encouraged by the institutes, to undertake to teach too much and too fast. This has been called a railroad age. Impudence is fast becoming, if it has not already become, the characteristic of the public mind. Before railroads were made, folks in the country jogged along with their old chaises and horses, and thought they were getting along very fast if they went six miles an hour. Now, none but a few very old



fashioned people are content with such progress. This tendency of the age has been most ingeniously caricatured by Hawthorne in his "Celestial Railroad." He imagines a railroad to heaven. Formerly, in the good old times, the Christian in his Pilgrim's Progress, travelled on foot with his staff in his hand and his heavy load of sins on his back, over hills and through valleys and sloughs, to the foot of the cross. Now, by the new invention, all obstructions are levelled, the traveller journeys pleasantly in a car, his heavy burden ticketed and safely stowed away in a baggage room. When, just at the end of his journey he awakes, and finds it all *a dream*.

Quintilian, who lived near the Christian era, censured the practice of undertaking to teach the young too fast, and compared it to undertaking to pour very fast into a narrow-necked bottle—a simile very often used since. One of the ancient princes who wished to learn geometry without any labor or study, was told by his preceptor that there was no royal road to geometry. Many in modern times seem to think that if there is no royal road, they have at least discovered a republican road to learning.

We are too apt to forget that one of the great objects in education is the discipline of the mind: that it is of more consequence to give the mind a degree of power which it shall be able to apply to any future study when needed, than it is to store it with any conceivable amount of learning. And the competition of schools, and the competition of teachers, and the desire of displaying the acquirements of scholars, all lead to increasing the number of studies in the schools, and to teaching on the railroad plan. Hard studies, calculated to strengthen and discipline the mind, are discountenanced and become unpopular. Scholars are shown how to avoid difficulties instead of being made to conquer them. We try to make knowledge easy by omitting every thing that is hard, instead of making it easy by making the mind strong to attack it.\*

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\*A. De Morgan.

## COLLEGES AND THEIR PROPER PLACE IN AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

Even our Colleges have become infected with the prevailing epidemic. Attempting to supply the wants not only of general education but of professional, and in some cases elementary also, they have gone on increasing the number of their studies until no more can well be added. As the number of Colleges increases, the competition becomes severe, and each seeks to gain popularity and students by lowering the standard of education, and by giving way to the prejudices against classical and disciplinary studies. Instead of wondering that there are so few students at our one hundred and twenty Colleges, we should rather wonder that there are so many. Our's is a young and growing country; we have as yet comparatively but little accumulated capital to support higher institutions of learning; the avenues to wealth are open to all, and the temptations are to a life of activity and enterprise, instead of study. And a great many of our high schools do now give as good an education, and are just as much entitled to be called colleges, as many that go by that name.

To the plan of allowing students who go to College, and who cannot spare the time or the money for a full course, the privilege of choosing the studies they think most useful to them, there can be but one serious objection, and that is that at the age at which young men, or rather boys go to College in this country, they are generally very poor judges of what is most useful to them. But this is nothing new. It is the plan of the European Universities, where the students are men, fit to choose for themselves. It is the plan of many, and of some of the oldest Universities in this country; Virginia, Cambridge and Yale.

These partial courses have generally failed in this country after the first novelty of the flush of popularity was over, and for this reason, that for those who cannot afford a thorough education, our High Schools and Academies afford already a

good practical training, full as good indeed, as many called colleges. And those who can afford the time and expense for a thorough education will always prefer the old course. The men who have become renowned in the world, have been mostly educated under the old system, and every judicious parent will want his son to have all the advantages of it.

But it is said the public do not support our Colleges, and this shows that they ought to be modified and brought down to suit the demands of the age. If a man makes a piece of cloth which he cannot sell, he must make something else or fail. True, but to apply this principle of supply and demand to morals and education is certainly something new. It has always been supposed that the benevolent and philanthropic were doing good and deserved credit, when they exerted themselves to elevate the standard of morals and of education; when they, being in advance of their age, endeavored to raise others up to their own level. What if those who have so generally expended their wealth in founding Universities of the old world and the new, had waited until there was a demand for high education, instead of endeavoring to create a demand for it? Would Jesus Christ ever have come, if he had waited until the world demanded his mission?

That our Colleges in the race for popularity and for students, have yielded too much to what they consider the demands of the age, instead of keeping their standard high and trying to raise the people to it, seems too evident. Instead of the old and disciplinary studies, the tendency is to substitute anything and everything which happens to be popular for the day, which happens to get the popular name of practical, because the people can see its immediate use, and forgetting that to give the mind a power and energy capable of being applied to any purpose, is to be practical in the highest degree.

A great deal of prejudice has been excited against the old

system, because fools come out of College ; as if Colleges could give men brains.

Look at the effect of the opposite systems in Europe, in England and in Germany.\*

In the English Universities very little effort is made to go over a great variety of books or studies, but those who attain the University honors, must at least be thorough in what is required. And this system has made the statesmen who have directed the destinies of England, and often influenced and decided those of the world. It has had no little influence in forming the character of the most practical of the nations of the earth.

In Germany, on the contrary, not only education is universal, but a high degree of learning is common. Her Universities are truly seats of learning. And learning—the amount of learning—is the object of the scholar's ambition. England is practical. Germany, universally learned Germany, is theoretic and visionary and cannot preserve her political liberty even when she has it in her own grasp.

That the difference in the character of the people is entirely owing to the difference in their systems of education, I do not say. That it is in some measure owing to it, there can be little doubt.

The question of the relation between Schools and Colleges has been for some time agitated, and in many places a great deal of jealousy has been manifested by the friends of one towards the other. This should not be. There should be and there need be no contrariety of interests between the two. Let us do all in our power to advance the public schools, and let us do all in our power to raise the standard of education in the colleges. Let the friends of common schools discountenance and repel that levelling spirit which seeks to produce an equality not by raising up but by pulling down. If the accounts we have of European educa-

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\*NOTE. This is noticed by Laing, one of the most intelligent of modern travellers.



tion are correct, a large number of our Colleges would be little better than high schools or academies there. One would suppose they needed elevation instead of depression.

I would say to teachers in common schools, indulge no prejudices against higher schools or colleges. If you find among your scholars any intelligent and fond of study, urge them to complete their education, to go to some College—to some College worthy of the name. So as common schools prosper, our Colleges will prosper also. And if our Colleges and their graduates do their duty their influence may be a blessing to our common schools.

I have said this much in favor of the old and disciplinary system, not because I wish to go to either extreme, but because the tendency appears to be at present both in Schools and Colleges to look more to the number of studies and cramming the memory with facts than to the strengthening the faculties of the mind.

As friends of education, we should put forth our united efforts to raise the standard of education every where, in the College and in the Common School, in the city, in the village and in the country. There is very little fear of any over education in the true sense of the word.

## OBJECTIONS TO EDUCATION CONSIDERED.

We hear many who are opposed to education, express their fears that we are doing too much, that we are educating the people too highly, that we shall make them discontented with their situation, and above their business. It were perhaps a sufficient answer to this, that do as much as we can, there is little probability in our life time of being able to give to the great mass of the people more than the mere elements of education, a little instruction in the fundamental branches, reading, writing and arithmetic. This is all which the circumstances of most will allow them to obtain. But this is no reason why the opportunity should not be of-

ferred freely to all, and why they should not be encouraged to educate themselves to the extent of their ability.

But how far is it true that education does make people discontented? If even a little education excites an ambition to improve, if it excites an ambition to improve one's self without envy or jealousy towards others, this certainly cannot be objected to.

Discontent will always exist as long as human nature remains as it is. But ignorance especially is discontented. The ignorant man meets with misfortunes and poverty. He knows not who to attribute his misfortunes to, how far they are unavoidable, how far they are the result of circumstances he can control, or how far they are the results of inviolable laws of Providence to which he should have conformed. He therefore thinks it all luck, and he envies those who are luckier than himself.

Knowledge, says Michelet, "does not make its professions malignant and envious, by what it communicates, but by what it holds back. He who is ignorant of the complicated media by which wealth is created, must naturally conclude that it is not created, that it does not grow, but changes hands only; and that man cannot become rich save by despoiling his fellows. Every acquisition will seem to him a robbery, and he will hate all who have accumulated." (People, 63.)

Again the ignorant, rich as well as poor, attribute all their misfortunes to government: and this leads to the desire on the one side and on the other to have government constantly interfering with the business and concerns of the citizen, and produces the very evils which it dreads.

But it is very common to hear an old fashioned person say that he can't see why his children can't do as he did, and that he has got along without much learning. Perhaps the best answer to such a one is to convince him that the

times have changed, that nations and states and cities and towns, and his neighbors all around him, are educating, and that if he does not wish his children to be hewers of wood and drawers of water for the rest of the world, he must educate, too.

Throughout the civilized world intelligence takes the lead of brute force. Says Sir Moudi, "Thought is the great human power; education and study enable us to join to our own experience and reflection the experience and reflection of all the human race. A man remaining uncultivated and knowing only what he has thought, what he has observed himself, opposed to him who is enriched by the thoughts and experience of ages, is like a poor individual who would contend with his own weak arm against the combined power of a multitude. The man also who by the obligation of manual labor must have condemned his faculties to almost constant idleness, opposed to him who by constant exercise has given to his mind rapidity, certainty and precision, has not the same means of making the most of his individual power of thought; whilst his adversary knows how to employ for his greatest advantage the treasure of thought of all those who have lived before him."

Again, it is easy to see that in the present age the question is not, whether a child shall be educated at all, but how. In old times, before the days of turnpikes and steamboats and railroads, it might be possible for a person to grow up and live and die in brute ignorance of all around him. Such a thing as happy, contented ignorance was possible. But it is so no longer. We are all subjected to powerful influences which often control our course and shape the character. Perhaps even in those who have the greatest advantages, this education of outward circumstances does more than instruction towards forming the character. The conversation and manners of our early associates, the desire to imitate those who have a reputation or standing in our neighborhood, our early

employments and our business relations, are all parts of our education and frequently of preponderating influence. Then in a free country, there is the information we derive from the proceedings of our district and town and other public meetings, our courts and juries, our various and intense political agitations, and the all-pervading influence of the press. The influence of the Bible and of the religious and metaphysical discussion growing out of the questions connected with it, not only on the morals but on the intellect of a people, can hardly be overrated. All these influences, some for good and some for evil, are in modern times brought to bear upon every member of society.

The School is therefore but a small part of the young man's education. It is in fact merely the means to future education, giving him the instruments wherewith to educate himself, and giving us also an opportunity to instill into his mind correct principles to guide him in his future course.

But even in this view it is all-important. Every thing depends upon the influences under which the child starts in life. If you do not subject him to good influences, he will almost inevitably be subjected to bad. The stable school, the store school, the street school, and the wharf school,\* will be always open to him, free of charge, and in them even dullness will be sure to learn.

There is no danger that too many will be educated. Our whole vast country is open to us as a theatre for the employment of our energies. New England has always furnished and as long as their systems of education are inferior and as uneducated foreign emigrants multiply, will continue to furnish a large portion of the professional and literary men of the other States. It seems to be the mission of New England. Why should not Rhode Island do its part towards

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\*The subject of a most interesting lecture before one of our Teachers' Institutes, by Rev. Thomas H. Vail, of Westerly.



furnishing the educated men of the new States? At present we do not furnish even our own.

Even within our own borders for some years a great change has been going on. Our hard labor in our cities, wharves, workshops, and even on our farms, is beginning to be done by uneducated foreigners. Yankee intelligence and enterprise find more profitable employment. Headwork seems to be the yankee's peculiar business. This change has been slowly going on for years. It is only a part however of the ordinary course of Divine Providence by which intelligence goes ahead of ignorance. This emigration should lead us to be doubly earnest in the work of education. We cannot prevent it if we would. For two hundred years this country has been the refuge of the oppressed of all nations. It will continue to be so. We would not selfishly close it against them, but with a broad and comprehensive charity we would educate and qualify them for the part they have to perform in our future history. Their descendants are to be our fellow citizens, perhaps our judges and rulers. Our own safety, the prosperity of our country, the purity of our government, depend upon the education of all, rich and poor, native and foreigner.

## OF THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF A PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

But if education be important, as we all hold it to be in a republican government, we should be cautious not to advocate it upon principles or promote it in a manner inconsistent with these fundamental ideas upon which republicanism is based.

What then is our idea of republicanism or of democracy, for we commonly use these terms as meaning the same thing, although they do not strictly. A republic or commonwealth is not necessarily a democracy. By a democracy we mean a State where the body of the people themselves exercise

the powers of government directly and without the medium of representation, as in some of the states of antiquity. This is not practicable in any large or extensive country.

The great security for the preservation of the liberties of a people is—not in the power being nominally in the people, which is of very little consequence if they neglect the exercise of it, nor in the people's occasionally exercising the power of electing their despots—but in the fact that the people do actually and practically take part in the management of affairs themselves.

The perfection of government would be, undoubtedly, *self* government—a state where every man should be a law unto himself—should govern himself and conform to the right without being compelled by outward force. This however we do not expect to attain to.

But if we cannot attain to perfection, we have at least a choice of systems. It should be our anxious desire, as we value freedom, to bring the management of State affairs home to every man, to localise government, so to speak—to endeavor to have every man interested in and sharing in the disposal of the affairs of his neighborhood, and as far as possible the concerns of the State also. This is practically done in our system by our subdivisions into counties, towns and school districts, and in some States into parishes. Every man thus is brought to be acquainted more or less with public affairs. They are the schools of our liberty, without which other schools would be of little value.

We are so familiar with these things here—we are so used to managing our own affairs, that we do not sufficiently value the privilege. To make a fair estimate of its value, we need only look at the condition of other countries. Take France for instance; why have so many revolutions in France always ended in despotism? France has been for ages a centralized government—that is, the people in the different portions of the country have had little or no share in

the government. All the officers have been appointed and everything ordered from the city of Paris. Not a road or bridge could be repaired, or the smallest local improvement made, without being authorized by those in power at Paris. The people contracted a habit of looking to the government at Paris for everything, of depending upon the central government for everything, and of not relying upon their own resources or on their own judgment for any thing. They lost—rather never had any knowledge of governing themselves. Paris became France. When a revolution came, they all looked to Paris for their new masters, never thinking or dreaming that they had anything to do but to obey, and caring very little whom they obeyed.

From the state of France we may also learn another fact—that equality of condition is no security for the liberties of a people. There is probably no country where the great mass of the people approach so near to each other in equality of condition as to property, and they are all equal before the law. Yet they are not free.

As an example of a different state of things, consider England. England is not a free country as compared with ours, but she is free as compared with the other countries of Europe. And we have little hesitation in saying that a considerable portion of the liberty they enjoy is owing to their having always preserved their local municipal institutions.

Our ancestors or many of them emigrated from England here at a period when the highest notions of liberty and individual independence prevailed there. Even if they had had no training in the practice of local government at home, the necessity of their situation forced them to govern themselves. Wealth and luxury did not exist to corrupt them, and so they learned and practiced the art of self government under influences best adapted to a healthy development.

We have in our country carried the principle of local self

government farther than is done in any country of modern times, farther perhaps than it was ever carried in any country of considerable extent. In the first place, we are a nation of confederated States, each in its own sphere sovereign. Then we are again subdivided into counties, towns, parishes and districts, each managing its own local affairs. Here every man learns to take an interest in the public welfare. I have said they are the schools of liberty. Better lose all other schools than these.

It is a matter of course that when one of these little communities meets to talk over its affairs, there will be conflict of opinion. Some are ignorant, some are prejudiced, some are attached to old notions and averse to innovation. There will be continued agitation, and sometimes a change of course without reason. The system is not perfect, merely because man is not perfect.

But manage their affairs as they will, with all their faults, it is far better, taking all things into consideration, and not looking merely to the success of the one object which we may wish to succeed, it is far better that their affairs should be managed by themselves, even if occasionally managed badly, than to have them managed with more wisdom by a superior power which should save them the trouble of governing themselves.

We should regard this principle of local self government as essential to the preservation of our liberties. We should guard watchfully against any encroachments on it. And this is the more necessary because the danger is not entirely from without. We are apt ourselves, when worried and fretted, when political affairs do not go as we like, to give up all interest in them, to throw them off upon any one who will take the trouble. This self government is a very troublesome thing. We see this every where. We want to save the trouble of thinking in religious matters, and so we take



a pattern to think by. So in politics we follow our leaders, if they will only do the thinking for us, and once in a while contrive to give us a chance to rejoice in a victory. Some get earnest in the pursuit of wealth, and some love their comfort and ease, and thus the whole control of things gets into the hands of a few who are active and will spend the time necessary for it. It is an old proverb that Power is always stealing from the many to the few.

Just so far as we depute to another, to one or more, the management of local affairs, which could be managed by the people of the neighborhood, just so far we are introducing the principle of centralization which tends to despotism.

We are very apt to think that there is no despotism unless there is a person called an Emperor or King at the head of it. Read history—we need not do that even—study the present state of the world, and we shall see that despotism may exist under very various names and appearances. Its first advances will always be specious and imposing.

I come now to the present application I intend to make of these principles.

We have many zealous friends of education, who being themselves much in advance of their fellow citizens, are very impatient that all others do not come up to their mark—are not ready to go ahead as fast as themselves.

Now in all great movements some portion of the people will be behind the rest. Some towns in the State and some districts in some towns are very backward and neglect education. This has led some to propose to do away with districts entirely. The same thing has, I believe, been proposed in Massachusetts.

Perhaps in this way things would be better managed. Perhaps the people would get better schools; perhaps not.

But this it seems to me is not the only question. It is taking a very one sided view of the case.

By having some one to provide these things for us, we should in time lose the power of managing a system ourselves. We should soon cease to take an interest in that which was provided for us by a superior power, without any effort of our own.

I am well aware that these views are not calculated to be popular among the ardent friends of education at the present day. The feeling in favor of using the power of a majority to compel the minority, is strong and probably gaining ground.

When speaking of education, I have said that impatience is the characteristic of the present age. We are in haste to teach in one year what used to require several. We wish to educate and reform the world at once. God has patiently waited two thousand years, and but a small part of the world is yet Christian. Weak mortals are dissatisfied if they cannot immediately bring everybody into their way of thinking. And (as it has been quaintly said) there are some who if they had been alive at the creation, would have found fault with the Almighty for taking six days to create the world when he might have done it in one.

The only compulsion I should like to see used, would be that which should oblige every man to take part in district meetings, and in the management of other public affairs, and which would punish the neglect of them as a failure of duty to the public. But even this degree of compulsion perhaps would be inconsistent with the principles here advocated.

It results from these considerations that a central bureau, if established, should be for advice, conciliation and uniformity, and not for compulsion; and in general, that we should endeavor to excite people to do for themselves, and not to do *for* them what they may better do themselves.

A thorough and searching examination of the asserted

grounds of the right and duty of the State to interfere in the education of the people, of the proper place of an educational system in the frame of government, and of the logical consistency of these grounds with other principles of government, political economy and religion, is yet to be made. It would furnish employment for the mind of a statesman and for the ablest pen.

Public schools are more economical than private schools : a greater number can be educated at less expense. Yet this evidently furnishes no justification for the State in establishing such a system, unless it is assumed that the State has a right to interfere in, and direct all the economical concerns of the citizen.

A public educational system, by educating greater numbers, tends to make labor more productive and to increase the wealth of the community ; but this does not seem to be a sufficient ground for its establishment.

Public schools may tend to support a free government : not necessarily, however : for in many parts of Europe elementary instruction is given as freely and as well as in this country, and yet is made to serve to strengthen the foundations of the parental—that is, of the despotic form of government.

That education does not always prevent superstition, credulity and fanaticism, the world furnishes evidence enough at the present day.

The prevention of crime seems to furnish a strong argument in favor of public education ; yet even this has been called in question by able writers.

If we once assume that it is the duty of the State as the common parent to educate all the children of the State, it would seem to follow that the State should treat all its children alike, should furnish to the child in the country the same education which the child in the city receives ; and

that the thinly settled agricultural townships of Exeter and West Greenwich should be supplied by the State with as able teachers as are employed in the cities and villages.

## OF PRAYER AND RELIGIOUS EXERCISES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND THE CONNECTION OF THESE SCHOOLS WITH RELIGION.

The teacher in one of the districts in the town of Cumberland, being in the habit of praying in his school, and parents sending children to the school having objected to his prayers, the School Committee of the town instructed the teacher to desist until the decision of the Commissioner of Public Schools could be had on the case.

The Commissioner would gladly have avoided deciding the case, not from any hesitation as to the course which ought to be pursued, but because it would have been desirable if possible for our schools to have gone on harmoniously as they have done, each district adopting such plan as suited itself, and without any strict definition of their legal rights.

The question involved the whole subject of moral and religious and of sectarian instruction in schools. The opinion given and the reasons for it were substantially as follows :

The right and duty of parents to give their children moral and religious instruction will be acknowledged by all, and each parent must judge for himself how far he is justified in educating them in the peculiarities of his own sect.

In a private school the teacher may prescribe his own exercises and no one has any right to complain. All who send to it, are supposed to understand and agree to the teacher's regulations.

But what are the rights of parents and the rights and duties of teachers in regard to moral and religious instructions in Public Schools established by law, and supported out of the common property by people of different sects, and in a



country too, where no particular denomination of religion is maintained by the State?

Of the importance of moral instruction, so far as it can be given without inculcating notions offensive to any sect, there seems to be but one opinion.

But that the teaching of the peculiarities of any religious denomination should be excluded from our schools, seems to result from the principles on which our system is founded, and from the impossibility of maintaining schools upon any other system.

In regard to the use of books in schools, the following opinion was expressed in the notes to the edition of the School Laws, Sec. 96.

"No book should be introduced into any public school by the committee, containing any passage or matter reflecting in the least degree upon any religious sect, or which any religious sect would be likely to consider offensive."

In regard to the use of the Bible in schools, the following remarks were made in Sec. 129 of the notes :

"In regard to the use of the Bible in schools, two observations occur here. If the committee prescribe, or the teacher wishes to have the Bible read in school, it should not be forced upon any children whose parents have any objections whatever to its use. In most cases the teacher will have no difficulty with the parents on this subject, if he conducts with proper kindness and courtesy. In the next place, no scholars should be set to read in the Bible at school, until they have learned to read with tolerable fluency. To use it as a text book for the younger scholars, often has the effect of leading them to look upon it with the same sort of careless disregard, and sometimes dislike, with which they regard their other school books, instead of that respect and veneration with which this Book of books should always be treated and spoken of."

The opinions here expressed have now been before the public for six years, and it is presumed have met with the approbation of the community.

The rule laid down in the Laws of the State of Massachu-

setts, while it points out and inculcates the duty of the teacher to give moral instruction, is carefully drawn to avoid giving countenance to any attempt to impart sectarian instruction.

"It shall be the duty of the teachers to use their best endeavors to impress upon the minds of the youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety, justice and a sacred regard to truth, love to their country, humanity and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry, frugality, chastity, moderation, temperance and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded; and they shall endeavor to lead their pupils, as their ages and capacities will allow, into a clear understanding of the tendency of these virtues to preserve and perfect a republican constitution and secure the blessings of liberty, as well as to promote their own happiness; and also to point out to them the evil tendency of the opposite vices."

As these principles could not be expressed in better language, it has been copied almost word for word into the General Regulations of Upper Canada. Many of our towns have incorporated it in substance in their school regulations.

It is well known that the greatest obstacles to establishing systems of education in England and Ireland have grown out of the question of religious instruction. The commissioners of national education in Ireland, state that in the schools under their charge "the importance of religion is constantly impressed upon the minds of children through works calculated to promote good principles and fill the heart with love for religion, but which are so compiled as not to clash with the doctrines of any particular class of Christians." The books prepared for the Irish schools are in high repute.

The common school law of Upper Canada provides "that in any model or common school established under this act, no child shall be required to read or study in or from any religious book, or to join in any exercise of devotion

or religion, which shall be objected to by his or her parents or guardians."

I have adverted to these laws and regulations of foreign countries because they have there already encountered the very difficulties we are now contending with here, and that we may have the benefit of their experience. They show that even in countries where there is a church established by law, it has been found impossible to support any national or general system of education without most cautiously guarding against sectarianism.

If sectarianism is to be excluded from our Schools, the question then arises, can prayer be made to express the sectarian peculiarities of the person who makes the prayer? But one answer, an affirmative one, can be given to this question.

It is the right and duty of every person to pray at the times and in the mode approved by his own conscience. But it seems equally plain that one person has no right to compel another to hear his prayers, if they are not agreeable to him. And it would amount to compulsion, if prayer is made a regular exercise of the school, and a pupil cannot come to the school without hearing it or violating the regulations of the school.

Prayer may be a very proper and useful exercise in school, and yet government have no right to enforce attendance on it. Compulsory attendance on any religious worship is against the express provisions of our ancient declaration of rights, the substance of which is incorporated in our present Constitution.

The conclusion, and the only conclusion that seems to me possible, is that prayer cannot be made a part of the regular school exercises except by general consent.

Any other rule would authorize a majority of a district, Episcopalian, Unitarian, Roman Catholic, or whatever denomination they might be of, to prescribe forms of worship

for schools and to compel the children of the minority to hear them, or to be absent during their performance.

It is probable however that if a teacher, while he introduces the forms of christianity into the school, would also exhibit an example of the effects of genuine christianity in his own life, temper and language, avoiding occasions of offending the feelings of those who differ from him, he would seldom meet with any objection to his religious exercises. To the Lord's Prayer, or any in a similar spirit, probably no one would object.

Religious exercises must therefore be left to voluntary arrangement between the trustees, teachers and parents. Any attempt to subject them to precise regulations, would be considered as an infringement on the religious liberties of the people, and at variance with the fundamental principles of our public school system.

In bringing these remarks to a close, I would invite your attention briefly to consider the peculiar advantages we enjoy as a State for the education of our people. About two-thirds of our whole population is in cities and villages. Our agricultural population is comparatively small. No other State in the Union is situated as we are. And as compact places can always support higher schools, we can therefore without extravagant expenditure give a good education to a greater portion of our whole people, than any other State in the Union, Massachusetts not excepted. Politically too we have more need of it than any other State in the Union, to guard against those sudden flaws of popular passion to which all small communities are liable. In a few short years Rhode Island may be the best educated community in the whole world. If we can do this, if we can take this honorable stand among the nations of the earth, let us resolve to do all that in us lies to accomplish it.

E. R. POTTER, Comm'r of Public Schools.  
KINGSTON, Jan. 24, 1853.



Table No. 1, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	Received from				Unexpended last year.	Total Resources.	Expended.		
	State.	Town tax.	Rate bills.	Registry and military taxes, &c.			For instruction.	School Houses, &c.	Voted by towns this year.
Providence	9716.05	34000.00		3157.74		46473.79	†32963.69		
North Providence	1857.57	3500.00		399.00	2642.11		5164.42	1929.98	3500.00
Smithfield	2759.19	3000.00		300.00		6089.19	6089.19	1275.00	*4500.00
Gumberland†	1578.87	2000.00		207.00		5138.37	5138.37	405.00	2000.00
Scituate	1027.74	244.46	1368.42	454.61	391.12	3585.35	3242.80		*500.00
Cranston	1115.96	1200.00		355.00	91.56	2762.52	2762.52		*1500.00
Johnston	752.51	500.00	217.54	91.20	212.10	1561.15	1561.15	400.00	00.00
Gloicester	623.80	200.00	650.00			1473.80	1473.80	150.00	00.00
Foster	475.35	181.11	855.02	165.56	405.57	2082.61	1703.50	285.00	1/3 81.11
Burrillville	865.86	300.00				1165.86	1165.86		*400.00
Newport§	2122.23	1922.00		1123.54	333.26	6569.03	6066.77	239.23	3600.00
Portsmouth	449.02	200.00		110.00		759.02	759.02		*250.00
Middletown	189.41	100.00	405.06	56.00		750.41	825.00	433.00	*200.00
Tiverton	1302.44	1500.00		68.49		2870.93	2870.93	75.00	1500.00
Little Compton	356.87	120.00	123.44	15.30		1775.51	1775.57	130.00	*250.00
New Shoreham	369.31	100.00	260.00	63.20		792.51	725.50	100.00	100.00
Jamestown	67.28	24.46	212.97			304.69	304.69		1/3
South Kingstown	961.69	460.00	828	334.41	224.00	2808.10	2808.10		460.00
Westerly	663.29	260.00	1172.58	6.84	46.23	2088.94	2042.71		200.00
North Kingstown	711.56	450.00	513.44	182.33		2139.05	1858.13	750.00	450.00
Exeter	432.20	143.92	530.34	46.80	329.82	1488.08	1372.33	486.04	148.92
Charlestown	247.18	125.00	252.50	86.60	116.66	827.94	896.31		125.00
Hopkinton	655.21	140.81	376.00	129.00		1301.05	1301.05	300.00	140.81
Richmond	418.30	120.00				538.30	517.59		*200.00
Warwick	1755.86	600.00		261.80	846.24	3463.90	3075.49		
Coventry	841.00	200.24	263.57	126.81	299.51	1731.13	1561.95	2517.25	1/3
East Greenwich¶	544.82	181.60	8.00	76.24	81.81	894.47	667.10		181.60
West Greenwich	324.70	77.31							
Bristol	1080.86	2250.00	723.00	87.00	22.43	5789.69	4585.00	200.00	*2900.00
Warren	583.31	1500.00	6.00	85.69	44.55	2180.50	2180.50		*1700.00
Barrington	148.45	200.00	283.91	24.49	45.00	701.40	656.40		200.00
	34997.89	55305.91	10209.79	8014.65	6131.97	115160.21	98135.44	9625.50	

Those marked thus \* have increased their appropriations.

†Deduct this from 46,873.79 and you have what has been spent for repairs, fuel, &amp;c.

‡\$1352.50 from tax Woonsocket.

§\$1078 from fund.

¶A fund of \$2000, but no income.

Table No. 2, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	Districts.		School Houses.			Scholars.				Teachers.	
	Organized.	t Organized.	Owred by town.	By District.	By Proprietors.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Average attendance.	Males.	Females.
Providence						3102	3305	6407	4938	12	96
North Providence	10			10		949	795	1744	1116	10	17
Smithfield†	35			24	11	1118	1074	2192	1721	25	38
Cumberland†	20			20		669	666	1138	944	10	20
Scituate	18			17		481	312	793	566	13	19
Cranston†	11			11		464	404	868	669	3	14
Johnston	13			8	5	365	262	627	401	10	5
Gloicester	14	1		11	1	260	211	471	341	10	13
Foster	19			11	8	340	237	577	351	13	11
Burrillville§	16			15		357	293	650	413	7	12
Newport¶			3			526	449	975	851	5	13
Portsmouth**	7			6		181	158	339	168	5	1
Middletown	5			5		109	52	161	110	5	3
Tiverton	17			16	1	559	416	975	697	9	17
Little Compton	9	1		9	1	216	170	386	187	8	10
New Shoreham	5			5		193	167	360	189	5	
*Jamestown	2		2			25	24	49	36	2	2
South Kingstown	20	1		19	2	488	342	840	585	13	8
Westerly	10			10		361	303	664	487	10	4
North Kingstown††	15			13	2	340	222	562	385	11	5
Exeter‡‡	14			12		235	152	387	237	12	1
Charlestown	7	1		6	1	127	117	244	154	7	1
Hopkinton	12			12		287	239	526	321	9	3
Richmond§§	13			13		202	174	376	308	11	2
*Warwick	15			12	2	622	622	1244	812	11	11
Coventry¶¶	17	1		16	1	418	281	699	448	15	1
East Greenwich	4	1	4	1		175	98	273	211	4	5
West Greenwich***						170	120	290	200		
Bristol	4	4	7		1	376	316	692	591	5	10
*Warren		3	3			177	156	333	220		
Barrington	3			3		68	54	122	102	3	5
*Ind. School.†††						19	17	36	13		
						13,979	12,208	26,200	18,772	253	34

†No district 30th.

‡Nos. 6 and 8 no return.

||3, 4 and 5 joint. 14 Mt. Hygeia 1-2 district with Foster.

§No. 8 no return.

¶17 Schools—19 teachers. New house cost \$8,019 17.

\*\*3 and 7 no return.

††Nos. 3 and 4 are a consolidated district at Wickford. No report from 12.

‡‡A joint district with Richmond.

|||A joint district at Carolina Mills.

§§Joint at Carolina Mills, Usquepaug, Iron Works and with Exeter

¶¶5 and 10 no returns.

\*\*\*Estimated. No returns from several districts.

†††Supported by \$100 appropriated by State.

a1, 2, 19 and 20 consolidated.

bEstimated—av. only given between the terms.

Table No. 3, accompanying the Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools.

TOWNS.	Apportionment of 35,000 under new census.	Whole No. Scholars.	Average attendance.	STATISTICS FROM NEW CENSUS.								Attended School within the year.	Cannot read and write.
				Population under 15 and over 4.	Population un- der 4.	Population un- der 15.	Idiots.	Deaf and Dumb.	Insane.	Blind.			
Providence	9,716 05	6,407	4,938	9,150	4,136	13,286	3	7	121	9	6,705	879	
North Providence	1,857 60	1,744	1,116	1,743	797	2,540	1	3	4	2	1,310	433	
Smithfield	2,759 19	2,192	1,721	2,701	1,072	3,773	1	5	4	4	2,281	469	
Cumberland	1,578 87	1,138	944	1,472	687	2,159	3	3	3		1,234	301	
Scituate	1,026 74	793	566	1,021	382	1,404	2	1	2	2	995	65	
Cranston	1,115 96	868	669	1,072	454	1,526	5	4	4		869	91	
Johnston	752 51	627	401	751	278	1,029	2	1		1	617	3	
Glocester	623 80	471	341	593	260	853	3	4	4	3	691	66	
Foster	475 35	577	351	457	193	650	10	3	4	2	495	13	
Burrillville	865 86	650	413	822	362	1,184	2	2	1		845	92	
Newport	2,122 23	975	851	2,102	800	2,902	4	4	16	5	1,556	212	
Portsmouth	449 02	339	168	448	166	614	5	3	4		442	31	
Middletown	189 41	161	110	478	81	259	1		1		163	1	
Tiverton	1,302 44	975	697	1,274	507	1,781	24	2	3	3	1,208	309	
Little Compton	356 87	386	187	388	100	488		1	2		503		
New Shoreham	369 31	360	189	382	123	505	6	4		4	402	8	
Jamestown	67 28	49	36	62	30	92	1	2			69		
South Kingstown	961 69	840	585	952	363	1,315		1	5	1	929	71	
Westerly	663 29	664	487	649	258	907	3	5	3		534	40	
North Kingstown	711 56	562	385	715	258	973	5	4	7	5	778	111	
Exeter	432 20	387	237	407	184	591	1	3	4	6	406	42	
Charlestown	247 18	244	154	252	86	338	2	2		1	243	13	
Hopkinton	655 24	526	321	666	236	896	5	1	3		691	30	
Richmond	418 30	376	303	416	156	572	1		1		363	9	
Warwick	1,755 86	1,244	812	1,793	608	2,401	3	2	9		1,385	85	
Coventry	841 00	699	448	841	309	1,150	1	1	6	1	213	99	
East Greenwich	514 82	273	211	563	182	745	3		1	1	511	86	
West Greenwich	324 70	290	200	311	133	444	2		4	2	201		
Bristol	1,030 86	692	591	1,074	404	1,478	6		5		995	141	
Warren	583 31	333	220	567	232	799	4	1	10	3	555	43	
Barrington	148 45	122	102	143	60	203					142	1	
Ind. School.		36	13										
	26,200	18,772	33,959	13,898	47,857	108	68	233	55	26,331	2,744		





## APPENDIX No. I.

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### THE RELATION OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

The following extracts from a Report of Prof. Andrews, of Marietta, upon the relation between schools and colleges, contain so much good sense upon this subject, that we are very glad to republish them. They are from the Ohio Journal of Education.

“ Another principle universally recognized, is, that *there must be classification*—classification of schools as well as in schools. The schools themselves must be arranged in classes, as well as the pupils in a particular school. There is no one feature made more prominent than this, by the best instructors in the nation. Its introduction into our towns has wrought a most wonderful transformation. There would be elementary schools for beginners, then others of higher and higher grades, till ample provision should be made for the general education of every child and youth in the State.

We should not expect that each pupil would complete the whole course. Yet the number that would attempt this, would be in proportion to the completeness of the classification, and to the excellence of the instruction in the elementary departments. Nor do we now inquire how many or how high grades should be established in any individual township, town, or city; we affirm only that, somewhere, institutions should be provided, in which the wants of all might be met. To equalize perfectly the advantages of any system would be manifestly impossible. The more dense the population,

the more complete the classification could be made. In the more sparsely settled regions, after progressing as far as their neighborhood schools could carry them thoroughly and economically, the more studious would seek admission into the High School or Academy of the nearest large town. And if any should wish to make acquisitions beyond what the High School could furnish, they must repair to institutions of still higher grade.

Thus far our supposed system. Now, taking the State as a whole, have we not substantially the system already, so far at least as this feature of classification is concerned? Is there not provisions for the child, from his entrance into the primary school, until he shall have finished the whole range of studies deemed necessary to a liberal education? I do not say that these schools, of whatever grade, are in every particular, precisely what they should be, but that the institutions exist which profess to furnish, each in its sphere, all that a finished general education requires.

From what has been said, we cannot mistake as to the connection between Schools and Colleges. Colleges constitute the highest grade of our non-professional educational institutions. They are an integral part of the system, sustaining to the High School and Academy precisely the same relation which these sustain to the lower schools.

Until recently, all non-professional institutions have been ranged in three divisions—Common Schools, Academies and Colleges. Of these three, the College has been much the most specific in its character. It has undertaken a more definite work than either of the others. In them a much greater variety of attainment has always been found. The Academy has admitted multitudes that ought to have been in the School, and the School has been compelled to retain many that should have been found in the Academy. In practice, there has been no boundary line between them, except in the case of a very few of our best Academies. But the College has always had its boundaries on either side. It has required

a definite amount of literary attainment for entrance, and the completion of the prescribed course of study, is the completion of the student's connection with it. The inmates of the College have also been required to arrange themselves in classes, that the instruction might be rendered as efficient as possible, by giving ample time to the recitations, and by permitting the instructors to confine themselves to particular branches. Thus, Colleges have ever conformed to the two great features of classification.

The other departments of what I have called general education are now beginning to follow the example of the College, in the matter of classification. Formerly, the common school and the academy had no limitation in the range of studies. The pupil might enter when he chose, and remain as long as he chose. And so long as his teacher was willing to hear him, he might study what he chose. Thus, the teacher was sometimes required to pass from a recitation in the primer to one in Virgil—from one in the elements of numbers to one in Trigonometry. But an improvement has commenced. The principle of division of labor, so long in use in our colleges, is beginning to be applied to schools. Most of our towns now have their Graded Schools, each possessing a definite course of study, which the pupil must complete before he can pass on to the next higher; and when he has completed it, he *must* pass on. The advantages of this arrangement are so manifest in theory, and in its practical workings it combines so fully both economy and efficiency, that no doubt can be indulged of its general prevalence.

It is sometimes said that "Colleges are behind the age." It is one of the most general of all generalities, and may mean anything or nothing. Whatever may be intended by it when applied to Colleges, we have seen that one of the greatest improvements introduced into our schools has been adopted from the Colleges; so that, if they are behind the age, they at least have the Union Schools to keep them company.

The College then is, chronologically, the last school in our

general school system. Using the most general classification and nomenclature, we have five departments—the Primary, the Secondary, the Grammar School, the High School, and the College, occupying from two to four years each. They all have the same end in view, and differ only in the order of succession. Some think that Colleges are intended specially for professional men; and so many think that High Schools and Academies are for the special benefit of the rich. The two opinions are deserving of equal credit. From the day the boy commences the alphabet, to the day that terminates his collegiate course of study, he is pursuing those studies which the intelligent voice of mankind has pronounced to be the best adapted to the development of his intellectual faculties. Examine the course of study in all the best Union Schools in Ohio, and you will find a remarkable similarity. Go to other States, and it is still the same. Whence has it arisen? Manifestly from the conviction, in the minds of intelligent men engaged in the work of instruction, that these studies, each in its place, are just what the wants of the pupils require.

If, as I have before supposed, the whole school system were to be re-constructed, should we not have substantially, the same grades as now exist? It would hardly be affirmed that the highest grade is unnecessary, because some of our young men are too highly educated. Nor would it be said that the studies of that grade could be better pursued without instructors. Professional education is obtained by the aid of teachers, and that, in most of the professions, at a very heavy expense. Much more, then, does general education, which precedes professional, require instructors.

What institutions shall furnish the closing portion of a good general education? Were our High Schools to attempt it with their present organization, they would violate the principle that lies at the basis of Graded Schools. Give them a large corps of instructors, and increase the time to six or eight years, and they might do it. In that case, however, they must be divi-



ded into at least two grades ; the upper of which would be, in substance, a College. But, except in the case of our large cities, the expense of such an arrangement would be an insuperable obstacle. The Metropolitan City is now making the experiment with her Free Academy, and we doubt not that it will be successful.

But even if all our large cities had institutions of the highest grade for their own youth, they could not meet the wants of the citizens of our towns and townships. Parents would not send their children to the cities. There must be institutions, located at eligible points, to meet these wants. We have them already, and they are called Colleges. What link is wanting in the system? It may be enlarged and perfected, but it now seems to be a continuous system—an uninterrupted succession of links.

I have dwelt more upon the relation of Colleges to the other parts of the system, because of the vagueness which exists in the minds of not a few, as to the precise place which Colleges occupy in our educational machinery. If the view now presented is the true one, the College is the highest of our institutions for general education, as distinct from professional. The culture which it gives may be more essential to certain occupations than to others, but it is because these require a higher culture. In this, it is not peculiar. It is the same from the beginning of the school course. Especially is it true of the High School and Academy. But who calls these professional? Or what Teacher, who is worthy of the name, would hesitate to affirm that the studies of the High School would be of incalculable value to every lad, no matter what might be his future employment? From beginning to end, through every stage of the educational process, which commences in the primary school and closes with the college, the culture is intended for the future man, as man—as a being endowed by his Creator with noble faculties, which need development; and not for him as a merchant, or a farmer, or a lawyer, in distinction from the other pursuits of life.

When a lad applies for admission to the public schools of this city, is the inquiry made, what is to be his future avocation, and are his studies arranged accordingly? By no means. Who can tell, in this land of ours, what is to be a lad's future career? The only inquiry is, what are his present attainments? These known, certain studies are assigned him, which are precisely what he needs; and no material alteration would be made, could the instructor pierce the veil of futurity and know absolutely the occupation of the future man. Neither, I venture to assert, does any superintendent excuse a lad from the study of arithmetic because he avows that he has no love for the study, or because a phrenological examination should develop the fact, that the mathematical bump was rather below than above the average. And yet, because Colleges do precisely in this respect what is done in the best schools in the land, we find men, otherwise well informed, declaring that the present college system does not meet the wants of the age.

Let it be remembered, that the principles of these objections, so far as they are based on any principles, legitimately carried out with respect to the other parts of our great school system, would utterly annihilate its highest excellences. Every blow aimed at what is called the "compulsory" principle in our Colleges, is just as truly a blow at the system of Graded or Union Schools. They are parts of the same great and beautiful system, and are based on one and the same principle—perfect classification.

To remodel the College System by taking away the "compulsory" principle, i. e., the principle of complete classification, and permitting each student to make his own selection of studies, would be like giving up our Graded Schools and going back to the *single district* system. Yet such a plan has its advocates, who claim, withal, to be in the very van of the world's progressives. They say, a young man's tastes must be consulted—the studies must be adapted to his mental idiosyncrasy—or there will be no real discipline of the faculties; and, again, his proposed pursuit in life must determine his

course of study. They do not tell us what is to be done, when his future occupation pulls him in one direction, and his mental idiosyncrasy in the opposite.

If an institution attempts to fit one young man to be a farmer, another to be a merchant, and so on, through all the multiplied avocations of society, its right to do so cannot be questioned : this is a free country. But just so far as it does this, it becomes a *professional* school, and withdraws itself from the work of *general* education. And yet, strangely enough, it is on this *professional* characteristic, that the claims of such institutions to public favor are based. The points of difference between them and other Colleges, are just those between them and the best Graded Schools. So far forth as they differ from other Colleges, they have no closer affinity for the general school system than the Starling Medical College.

The system of general education has then its completion in the College proper. The College is the continuation of the course commenced years before in the most elementary department. It sustains to the High School and Academy, exactly the relation that one of these does to the next before it in order of time. The whole forms a complete school system. The object of each department is the same as that of the others, and if any one fails perfectly to accomplish that work, it furnishes but another proof that imperfection attaches to all human works.

Let us now consider the influence which Schools and Colleges exert upon each other.

The influence of the School upon the College is direct and immediate. The road to the latter lies through the former. The college having always adhered to the principle of the division of labor, must receive its pupils from the school. According to the character of the training to which they have there been subjected, will be in no small measure, their future scholarship. If this early training has been imperfect, however faithfully the student may perform his collegiate duties, he cannot wholly free himself from the difficulties which

have thus been brought upon him. On the other hand, when all this previous work has been properly performed, each branch having received its appropriate attention, and at the proper time, the student is prepared to reap all the advantages which a well-digested collegiate course is calculated to furnish.

The College is also dependent upon the School for the habits of study of its students. Before entering college the pupil has spent from six to twelve years in the different departments of the schools. In this long period, habits will have been formed which it will be difficult to change. If these are what they should be, the previous teachers will deserve no small share of the praise for the student's subsequent success; and so, if these habits are the opposite of what they should be, to the same previous teachers must be attributed a considerable portion of the blame of his final failure.

In both the particulars now mentioned, it will be seen that the influence of the previous schools upon the College, is just the same as that of the lower schools upon the High School. The amount of this influence is believed in both cases to be greatly underrated, and the tendency is too common to attribute all the imperfections of a young man's education to the institution, whether school or college, where his course was nominally finished; whereas, in truth, every school in which he has been enrolled, and every teacher who has attempted to give him instruction, has contributed to the final result.

A third particular may be mentioned in which the influence of the school upon the college is too great to be overlooked. It is an influence not affecting the scholarship of the students, but their number. The question whether a lad shall receive a liberal education, is very frequently decided by the teacher of the school. This is done in different ways; sometimes by direct advice. A teacher who has imbibed a prejudice against collegiate institutions, learns that a bright lad among his pupils has a half-formed purpose of obtaining a liberal education. He endeavors to dissuade him—magnifies the difficulties to



be encountered—tells him that such an education will do him no good, and that he will be better off without it. Or, without taking ground thus positively against a college education, he may, by doubt and insinuation, accomplish the end quite as effectually. The ingenuous boy has confidence in his teacher, and the noble purpose is nipped in the bud. A word of encouragement, on the other hand, would have cherished and strengthened the purpose, and in after years that instructor might perhaps have seen his former pupil taking his place among the magnates of the Republic, a dispenser of blessings to his country and the race.

The same ends are often accomplished without any direct effort on the part of the teacher. Is he incompetent, possessed of little knowledge himself, and poorly fitted to impart that little, how can he stir up the dormant energies of those entrusted to his care?—how instil into their minds that thirst for knowledge, which constitutes one of the strongest guaranties for future improvement? He stands before his pupils a sort of personification of education, and no wonder they have no desire to go farther. Contrast with him the man of large and varied acquirements, of ripe and polished scholarship, and possessing, besides, that enthusiasm in his work, that power of enkindling in the breasts of his pupils a strong desire to know, which is second to no other qualification of the most successful teacher. Can genius long remain latent under such influences? As part after part of the rich domain of knowledge is explored with such a guide, will there not spring up an irrepressible desire to go farther—to make still wider explorations? The higher the culture, and the more varied and accurate the attainments of the teacher of the school, when associated, as they should always be, with intense enthusiasm, the greater will be the number to be seen urging their way onward from grade to grade, till they have possessed themselves of the highest advantages that our great educational system can offer.

But what is the influence of the College upon the School?

Keeping in mind that the College is the highest department in the system of general education, it is manifest that, wherever correct views are entertained of our educational machinery as a whole, the College must act with magnetic force upon the pupils of the other departments. Prominent among the reasons urged for the establishment of High Schools in our towns and cities, is this—that the High School will exert a powerful influence upon the lower schools, by inciting their pupils to greater diligence and faithfulness in their studies. The argument is equally applicable to the College.

Again, it is urged in favor of the establishment of High Schools and Academies, that they will furnish teachers. This argument, too, whose truthfulness will not be questioned, applies with equal pertinency to the College. The College benefits the School by training up and sending forth those that will become teachers. It seems hardly necessary to say, that I do not mean to affirm that the knowledge and intellectual discipline obtained in College, are all that the good teacher needs; and yet there are not a few who seem to think, that because the young graduate does not at once equal the teacher who has had the experience of half a score of years, therefore a College education is no help to a man who would become an instructor. It requires strong logic to show the connection here between premise and conclusion.

A College is not a Normal School, though it may have such a department. And it is no more to be blamed for not doing the work of a Normal School than is a High School. The province of each of them is, not to educate a young man as a teacher, any more, or any less, than as a merchant. Each has for its appropriate office the communication of knowledge and the development of the whole mind, and not that of initiating into the mysteries of teaching as a profession. This last is the province especially of the Normal School; and when such a school shall have been established in our State, let every candidate for admission into the corps of teachers, be required to certify that he has been in attendance at that school, or some other, at least one term.

It requires a rare combination of excellencies to make a good teacher—a teacher of a school. It is hardly too much to say, that success—a high degree of success—is a more difficult attainment in this than in any other of the occupations of life. One of these excellencies, and certainly one of the first importance, is *knowledge*—knowledge of the subjects which our children must be taught. The more knowledge the teacher has the better, other things being equal; for it is a rare complaint against him, that he knows too much, or too well. The best teacher is never satisfied with his present attainments—he is always learning. The more he learned when a pupil, the higher is his starting point as a teacher. Now some things taught in College are certainly more immediately available to the teacher than others, but there is not one which it is not for his interest to know—there is not one which our best instructors, whose early opportunities were limited, are not studying for themselves, as they can snatch fragments of time from the pressure of their daily duties.—Should it be said that it is better to pursue these studies thus than under instructors, then we may affirm the same of other branches lower down on the scale, till, in the end, we shall shut up every school house in the land.

The principle that attainments in the higher studies qualify for the better understanding of the most elementary branches, is acted upon universally. The man who instructs the most advanced classes in the High School, is the Superintendent of the Primary Schools, the teachers of which instruct under his direction. So in the very center of educational progress, on the soil where good schools flourish best, such thoroughly educated men as Horace Mann, Barnas Sears and Henry Barnard, are appointed State Superintendents.

Once more : Colleges repay the Schools by scattering abroad through the community a class of men who are always found to be the warmest supporters of good schools. Liberally educated men, without exception, are anxious that their children should be well instructed. They are always foremost in em-

playing well qualified instructors, and most ready to give them an adequate compensation. Their countenance and support may be depended upon when the teacher has to contend with the prejudices of the narrow-minded and ignorant. Their judicious suggestions for the improvement of his school, will always meet his approbation and encouragement. When our noble system of free schools is attacked by the demagogue under the plea of economy, the educated man will be found among its most earnest and successful defenders."

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## SOME THOUGHTS ON COLLEGE EDUCATION.

BY TAYLER LEWIS.

The following letter, grew out of a request made to Professor Lewis to be present and take part in the discussion of the question,—Whether "Our Colleges meet the demands for education in this country." This was his reply :

"UNION COLLEGE, SCHENECTADY, }  
Tuesday, Feb. 6th, 1850. }

DEAR SIR :—

The discussion to which you invite me is certainly a very interesting one, and I should like much to be present. That, however, will be out of my power. Of the general question proposed I should take the negative side, but on very different grounds from those that would probably be assumed by my old friend, Mr. Greeley. A higher order of education, I would say, is demanded from our colleges, if we use the term *demand* for the intrinsic need or want, and in this sense, *value* of the thing, rather than the clamor of the popular press ; or, in other words, if we employ education in its true and highest meaning, as being the culture, growth, development, and formation of mind as mind, and of man as man, in distinction from the partial knowledge which has nothing to do with such culture and formation, but has regard solely to particular pursuits and branches of



business. If we take the word, then, in the first sense, and the true sense, and, as I could show (did time and space permit), the most really practical sense, our colleges do not meet the intrinsic demands for education in this country. They have been drawn away by the popular clamor into a more relaxed, diluted, and superficial course, which has taken the name of the practical; whilst experience, as far as the experiment has been tried, is daily showing that it turns out weaker men, less truly practical men, less prepared to meet the flood of quakery which is pouring from the press, from the public lecture, and even from the pulpit. The immense amount of spurious opinions, spurious philosophy, and spurious science even (as the term is abused), all over our land, furnishes the strongest argument in proof of the need of a truly educated class, of the want of an order of minds thoroughly drilled in the strong old scholastic course, embracing that harmonious mixture of the pure mathematics, rich classical knowledge, logic, rhetoric, mental and moral philosophy, together with the fundamental elements of physical science, which makes the strong man, the practical man, the man prepared to make himself master of any kind of useful, or useless, knowledge he may afterwards choose to acquire. Experience is showing that every *essential* departure from this course (although there may be modifications in detail) leads only to inefficiency, and superficial and chaotic knowledge.

There is also (and here I speak from my decided experience as a teacher) a great fallacy about this so-called "*useful*" or "business knowledge." I have generally found the kind of education that deals most in this sort of cant, to be, of all others, the most worthless, useless, and absolutely good for nothing, if not positively pernicious. It does not even secure that at which it professes to aim. The reason is obvious. Cut of from its relations to the general design and innate idea of education, it is necessarily superficial, and all

superficial knowledge is chaotic, and thus far productive of mental imbecility. Again, it is one-sided ; and all one-sided knowledge taken out of the general scheme of truth, and viewed aside from its connexions with other sciences, is necessarily distorted and incorrect. Partial course' students, pursuing what are called the practical and useful branches, I have almost always found to be inferior, even in their own chosen studies, to those who take the full scholastic course, which goes to make up the harmonious whole we style a "liberal education."

There is, again, another fallacy involved in these "useful science" schemes. Real scientific men can be only those, with very rare exceptions, who are able to devote their lives, and who do devote their lives, to scientific pursuits. All absurd questions and complaints about aristocracy and democracy, and "buried genius," and intellect "born to blush unseen," are here altogether out of place. Life is too short, and "art too long," to admit the truth of any other idea respecting it. Scientific men, truly scientific men, must, as a general rule, form a class. There is no help for it. And whilst this is so, the practical applications of science to business and trades, and mechanic arts, must be, more or less, the empirical use of principles brought out in the closet or the laboratory. If a man wants chemistry for no other or higher purpose than some of its applications to his trade or business (and if he does want it for some higher purpose it is no longer as *useful* knowledge), why should each one in these circumstances learn the whole science for himself, and study it out for himself, when it has already been studied out for him by others, and that too so much better than he could have ever done it for himself? Why not in the same way each man his own physician? But in truth, he does not really learn it. It is worse than empirical knowledge after all, for that may have some modesty about it, some sense of its own deficiency. To found mechanical or agri-

cultural colleges, in which, by a three months' or a six months' attendance, our young men generally are expected to be made scientific, is only the most ready way to make pretenders, and to fill the land with worthless, and worse than worthless, because superficial knowledge ; as from the very nature of the case and shortness of the time, it *must* be. One truly scientific and practical man sent abroad at the public expense to lecture throughout our state, on the direct applications of chemistry and other branches, would effect more than all the mechanical, or agricultural, or manual labor colleges that could be contrived to waste the public means.

There is a third mistake on this subject. The science actually required for practical pursuits, or for what is called business, is really far smaller in amount than is generally imagined. What there is of it, too, is much better, and more clearly, and more safely learned as accurate empirical knowledge, than in a futile attempt to grasp what is really never thoroughly laid hold on, and which, moreover, in consequence of its necessary superficialness, leaves the mind in a worse state than it found it. It is not only in a worse condition generally, but in a worse condition to use the very knowledge thus required, than if it had been received as simple fact or truth, without any weak attempts to theorize respecting it.

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Now the very facts that such unsound notions are all abroad, and that they increase in proportion as our colleges are inclined to relax in favor of a more popular system ; these very facts create the strongest arguments in favor of their retracing their steps, and aiming, on the other hand, to produce a more highly and thoroughly educated class, as a counteracting force. Hence would I maintain that our colleges, instead of accommodating themselves to a false sentiment, which is never satisfied with any concessions,

should rather return to a more scholastic system ; that is, a system more grounded on the most fundamental truth,—a system aiming at a well-balanced, well-harmonized course of study, in which the *humanities* (that is, the studies that pertain to man as man) should be well taught, rather than at great extent or diversity in matters of instruction, or at the accommodation of these to what are called “immediate practical utilities.” If our colleges once depart radically, in this way, from the true idea of liberal education, there can be consistently no stopping-place, no end to these demands of “practical utilities,” until they have run through the whole course of occupations and trades, and established professorship for them all, from the art and mystery of the hod-carrier to that of the architect.

They have already gone far enough in this direction. Experience, the best guide, is too conclusively showing that somehow, with all the pains and all the boast about being “*useful*,” the results are after all poor and worthless. It is time, therefore, that there should be a *reconstruction*, a return to a system known to have produced better fruit, although this old mode might perhaps, be slightly modified in non-essentials to meet the new demands of increased physical science. But even the necessary and fundamental department on this kind of knowledge have been greatly overrated ; at least in their comparative value. Chemistry is indeed a noble science ; but in the midst of abounding moral, social, political, and theological *quackery*, logic, or a close acquaintance with the *fallacies* as well as the legitimate power of language, may actually become not only higher, but even a more useful study than chemistry, with all its acknowledged value. Logical tests of false reasoning may be worth more, at such a time as this than chemical tests of poisons and bad medicines. Let any serious man read carefully for this purpose the speeches in Congress, and the leading articles in many of our most widely circulated



newspapers, and then seriously ask himself, what kind of knowledge our young men most want. The knowledge of *words*, which some with sneering ignorance would set in contrast with *things*, becomes one of the most useful of all *things*, at a time when *things* themselves are perverted, or seen through a false medium in consequence of the universal abuse of language, in the rejection or distortion of the fundamental ideas or first truths in which it is grounded.

## APPENDIX No. II.

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### DECISIONS ON THE SCHOOL LAWS.

#### USE OF SCHOOL HOUSES FOR OTHER PURPOSES THAN SCHOOLS.

In the case of the appeal of Isaac Hall, of School District No. 10, of the town of North Kingstown, from the proceedings of the Trustees of said district, in permitting the school house in said district to be used for a debating society; the said Trustees having been notified and heard before the Commissioner at Wickford, on the 1st day of February, A. D. 1853.

The case involves the right of the district or trustees, to use the school house for other purposes than an ordinary school, and depends partly upon the provisions of the general school laws, and partly upon the conditions of the deed of the lot upon which this particular school house stands.

The following remark upon this subject is made in section 121 of the notes to the School act: —“A school house, built or bought by taxation on the property of the district, should not be used for any other purpose than keeping a school, or for purposes directly connected with education, except by the general consent of the tax-paying voters.”

The rule here laid down is believed to be substantially correct and sound. The district holds the property in trust for educational purposes. The money has been taken from the tax-payers by force of law for certain purposes, and for those only, and cannot be applied by either district or trustees to any other use.

I am of opinion that under the school law the house may be used for educational purposes collateral to the main purpose, such as meetings of the district for school business, lectures upon literary or scientific subjects, debating societies for the people or children of the district, &c. It may not be easy in all cases to draw the line between legal and illegal uses, but it would be perfectly clear that the district could not use the house for trade or religious meetings, if any person objected to it.

The question then arises whether the deed in the present case, varies the rights of parties from what they would be if the deed contained no conditions.

By the deed from Joseph Case and others, dated October 11th, 1848, the school house lot is conveyed to the district, "for the purpose of maintaining thereon a district school house and appurtenances, for the benefit of the district school of said district, and for no other use or purpose whatever, except religious meetings," and it is provided "that when said lot of land shall cease to be occupied for the purposes of a district school aforesaid, the same shall revert to the grantors, their heirs and assigns forever."

The exception in regard to religious meetings may be left out of consideration in the present case. It cannot affect it in any way. If the district have no right to religious meetings there independent of the deed, the deed cannot give it to them. And if the district would have such a right otherwise it may admit of question whether a provision in a deed would deprive them of it.

Leaving out of consideration the words, "except religious meetings," the remainder of the first passage quoted from the deed, appears to me, on the maturest reflection, to express no more and no less than the school law according to the construction herein given to it, would have expressed without the deed; the provision in the deed is exactly in the spirit of the law, and neither adds to or lessens the rights and powers of the district or trustees.

If the first passage quoted from the deed, does not vary the rights of the district, from what they would be, if there was no such provisions in the deed, the latter proviso appears for the same reason to contain no limitation as to the use of the house, which would prevent its being used for the purposes for which I have said the law apart from the deed would authorize.

E. R. POTTER,  
Commissioner of Public Schools.

I have carefully considered of the above opinion and approve of the same. I have also consulted with Judges Haile and Brayton, who concur with me in opinion.

R. W. GREENE,  
Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

March 4th, 1853.

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#### MAKING FIRES, ETC. IN SCHOOLS.

Appeal to the Commissioner of Public Schools from a regulation made by the School Committee of the town of North Kingstown, relating to the making of fires in school houses.

The regulation No. 26 adopted by the School Committee, October 25, 1852, is in these words: "The trustee or trustees of each district with the teacher, may cause the fires to be made in the school house, by directing the scholars of a suitable age, to take turns in making the fires, or procure them to be made in any other way they may think proper."

In a private school the teacher has a right to prescribe his own terms. The parent who sends children to the school delegates to the teacher the right to govern them according to his own rules and to punish to a reasonable extent for the violation of them. The remedy of the parent, if he does not like the school or its regulations, is in not sending to it.

Before the establishment of a public school system all our



schools were of this character. The practice of requiring the scholars to perform services of this sort, was generally adopted in the country schools, and in many of them has continued to this day. It remains to inquire what alteration the establishing of public schools by law, supported by the common funds and property of the State, has made in the rights of the parties in this respect.

To a public school every parent has a legal right to send his children. He sends them subject to the lawful authority of the teacher, and to the lawful regulations which may be prescribed for the discipline and studies of the school, but he has a right to insist that no regulations be made which the law does not authorize.

The right claimed, if it exists at all, must be derived from the general power of the Committee to make regulations, or from the authority given to districts and trustees to make assessments on scholars and their parents. (Sec. 59.) The latter, however, it is very evident, contemplates only assessments to be paid in money and not labor.

The power of the Committee to make regulations is given by Section 16, which authorizes them, "to make and cause to be put up in each school house, or furnished to each teacher a general system of rules and regulations for the admission and attendance of pupils, the classification, studies, books, discipline and method of instruction in the public schools."

It seems to me very plain that the power to make a regulation of the character of the one in question is not given in this paragraph. We might as well infer a right to require the scholars to cut and saw the wood. And as I can find no other authority for it in the law, it must be considered as unauthorized by law, and accordingly null and void.

The practical difficulty in the case may be easily obviated by a voluntary arrangement on the part of the parents, or by

making a small addition to the money assessments, and paying some person for attending to it under the direction of the teacher.

E. R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools.

Providence, R. I., Jan. 1, 1853.

## APPENDIX No. III.

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### RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS.

The following extracts from writers of different religious denominations, are given, in order to exhibit the great variety of views upon this subject. Some of the extracts it is believed will be found suggestive of subjects for the most serious reflection :

Extract from a Lecture by RICHARD GARDNER, Esq., before the Public School Association of Lancashire, England.

“ Another fundamental objection will be taken to the plan, as to which I shall not do more than throw out a few general observations. I alluded to the exclusion of theological teaching. This, it will be said, is godless education. Now, in the first place, that which is contemplated by the plan, or indeed by any system of day schools whatever, is not *education* at all, in the strict sense of the term. Education commences in the cradle, and is affected by all the circumstances of a man's life in his course to the grave. The *instruction* received in the day school is one of those circumstances which we desire to make as favorable as possible. Then comes the question, What is to be taught in the day school ? I very much doubt whether, under any circumstances, this is the proper place for religious instruction. It is a place of labor, of restraint, and sentiments of punishment. I doubt whether the Bible and the Catechism have their appropriate place amidst the routine of circular studies, and whether one

and the same teacher should be called upon, in one and the same course, to pass from the spelling book and the rule of three to the mysteries and sanctions of Divine Truth. I lay very little stress upon that religious teaching which is given as a matter of drudgery and routine, sometimes, perhaps, amidst tears and disgrace. I know, at least, that this mixture is not generally attempted in day schools for the wealthier classes—at least it was not in my time. But however this may be as an educational question, the political aspect of the plan makes the exclusion in question necessary. Society cannot unite in its corporate capacity to teach theology, because society is one, but forms of faith are many. If society selects one form for its patronage, as the symbol of the nation's faith, it is, in my opinion, guilty of injustice; if many, or all, of latitudinarianism. It might be possible to devise a plan which would nominally get over the difficulty, but we are satisfied that no compromise of the kind would work. But though the plan excludes theology from its schools, not as undervaluing the importance of such studies, but from the necessity of the case, it is clear, I think, that it is calculated to prove highly favorable to the effective teaching of religion in other and more appropriate places. I believe that one reason for the comparatively small success of the vast religious agencies, which are now at work in this country, is the low state of the intellectual culture of the people. Depend upon it, that a nation of Protestants will never be a religious people, till it becomes an intelligent people, because Protestantism appeals so much to the understanding."

Extract of a Lecture before the same by JOHN MILLS, Esq.

"If the advantage of teaching be a *social* advantage, and if the evil of its neglect be a *social* evil, why not consign the task to social agency—to government for instance, as the recognised organ of society? But an intelligent voluntary



would readily reply to this reasoning, "I agree with you that the development of man's nature is a duty, and that the resulting advantage is a social one; but it must not be forgotten, that one part of the desired development is of a *religious* nature. Religion is a matter to be dealt with by individual conscience; the law of conscience is, in reference to religious belief, supreme. Creeds vary; the tax fund is contributed by the believers of *all* the varieties of creed. To devote any portion of that fund to the inculcation of any creed, is to violate the consciences of the adherents of all the rest. Between moral obligations, as between physical laws, there is, not indeed opposition, but due subordination, the lower to the higher. To secure human development by the compromise of spiritual freedom, would be to convert obedience to one behest of duty into a monstrous violation of another and higher requirement. This consideration, however, by no means impairs the obligation to educational effort, though it lays an interdict upon one particular method."

"Men of all parties, from John Foster the Baptist, to Dr. Hook the vicar of Leeds, had for some time been uttering indignant protests against the quiescence of the State in the matter of general education, before the present government, feeling the anomaly thus pointed out, addressed themselves to the task of removing it. There is reason to suppose\* that a disposition was not wanting to present the country with a good national system of secular education, but this was denounced by anticipation with the glib adjective, '*godless*;' while, on the other hand, the introduction of doctrinal religion into such a system would have been in direct defiance of the large party who conscientiously object to State endowments of religion. The government, there-

\* This supposition is founded upon a remarkable speech delivered by Lord Morpeth, at York, during the time of the agitation consequent on the issue of the minutes of the privy council on education.

fore, saw no better means of bringing the national resources to bear upon national culture, than to hand over the public money in aid of local efforts, in certain proportion to the amounts raised by the local promoters. This arrangement, and certain provisions for official inspection of schools and award of salaries to pupil teachers, form, substantially, the plan of the 'minutes of council.'"

"That no *spiritual* interest is placed in peril by the adoption of a system of instruction which leaves doctrinal teaching to specially qualified spiritual functionaries is a fact not merely to be assumed in theory, but one which has been proved by actual experiment. On the testimony of M. Victor Cousin, accredited by Mr. Leonard Horner, a gentleman known to Lancashire, we are assured that, in Holland, after thirty years of instruction on this principle, the people 'are an honest and *pious* people; and Christianity is rooted in the manners and creeds of the people.' And of America, where a system similar in this respect is adopted, we are assured, by Sir Charles Lyell, that 'the clergy are becoming more and more convinced that, where the education of the million has been carried furthest, the people are most regular in their attendance on public worship, most zealous in the defence of their theological opinions, and most liberal in contributing funds for the support of their pastors and the building of churches.' So that to expedite the spread of secular knowledge is a process not only not hostile, but largely helpful to the aims of the sects, even though the educational rate-fund be neither monopolized by one church nor shared by all.

To this fact I allude, however, rather as a sedative for fears than as a stimulus to action.

Extract of a Lecture before the same by WALTER FERGUSON, Esq.

"I have indicated the kind of education which is given in the common school of New England and New York. It is

*unsectarian*. Some persons in this country might be disposed to call it irreligious—*godless*; but in America its tendency is generally considered to be decidedly favorable to religion. This much is certain, that where the common school system is most developed, there places of worship most abound, and are best attended, and ministers, missionaries, Bible and benevolent societies, are most liberally supported. The most active promoters of common schools are religious men, not wanting in zeal for their respective theological opinions, but who do not think that it is their duty to assist on those opinions being inculcated in schools to which believers in other dogmas contribute equally with themselves. A high moral character is strictly insisted upon as the first and most indispensable qualification for a teacher, for the want of which no attainments, and no powers of communicating them, can atone; but no *creed* test is used, and teachers are forbid to inculcate their peculiar religious views (whatever those may be) on the children. This prohibition is not found to prevent conscientious and zealous religionists from accepting the office of teacher; and having once undertaken it, it would be deemed a breach of faith on their part did they attempt to proselytize the children."

Extract from a Lecture before the same by Rev. W. McKERROW, of Manchester, England.

"It cannot fail, first of all, to strike every one who makes inquiry into the subject of congregational schools, that they exhibit a lamentable waste of money and effort. There has been in general but little forethought and calculation evinced in their formation. They have sprung from impulsive feeling, and not from sound judgment. The factory education bill, to which we have referred, brought many of them hastily into existence, and the late "Minutes of Council" have been the means of adding to their number. There seemed

to be a kind of benevolent mania, prompting everywhere the erection of such schools ; and almost every Christian congregation that did not bestir itself to have one of them, was supposed by the zealous and sanguine to be indifferent to its duty and interest. But there being no considerate and kindly agreement amongst the sects, they have planted their educational establishments immediately adjoining their places of worship, or as near to them as possible. It has followed that in many quarters schools have been by far too closely crowded. Costly buildings, not a few, are to be seen almost within speaking distance of each other, where there is not a sufficient population of children to fill them. We find, for example, eight of them (exclusive of private schools) in one district of our city within the radius of little more than a quarter of a mile, and some of these almost in juxtaposition ; and four of them in another district, not more than two or three hundred yards apart. It is not to be wondered at, in these circumstances, that we should have empty rooms and dispirited teachers, as well as an unprofitable investment of money and expenditure of labor. And not having arrived as yet at the millennial period when the wolf shall dwell with the lamb, who can tell how much property may yet be rendered useless by the rivalry of sects ? We have heard it said that in various parts of the country Churchmen have waited to see where Dissenters would place their schools, and then, having allowed them to exhaust their resources, have commenced in their immediate vicinity an oppositional establishment ; and similar charges have been made by Churchmen against Dissenters.

But another circumstance in connection with these church and chapel schools, which we must also consider, is, the uncertainty of their support and continuance. They commonly arise from some species of excitement which soon subsides ; they have not within them, nor in connexion with them, the



means of regular and constant sustenance and of permanency."

Extract of a Lecture before the same association by Rev.  
SAMUEL DAVIDSON, D. D.

"Still further, not only is it a matter of unavoidable expediency to keep away distinctive religious doctrine from the schools, because the plan could not otherwise command itself to the sympathies of all, but it is better, both for the interests of religion and of secular education, that the separation in question should exist.

It is better for *religion* that it should be dealt with in this method. It has always appeared to me that true religion has about it something so sacred and reverential as to demand a corresponding treatment. The Bible, claiming to be a divine book, should be read and explained with a veneration befitting its origin. It is difficult, however, if not impossible, to do this amid the noise of a daily school. There the sacred volume soon comes to be looked on by the scholars as an ordinary book. It is associated with lessons, perhaps with disagreeable tasks that tax the memory. *Insensibly*, it may be, and *gradually*, it takes its place *virtually* in the eyes of the pupils along with any other volume of varied contents. Amid the dust and drudgery of a common school, it does not long retain any hallowed association. It is put into the list of the lesson books, and comes round in the dull routine. Hence many carry away the most disagreeable recollections of it from the public school. Their memory associates it with feelings of irksomeness. They do not turn to it with pleasure in after life. They have a sort of aversion to it. Such is the effect of making the Bible an ordinary school book. The same observations will apply to the catechisms, which are employed as embodying the distinctive principles of any religious denomination. It is not good, generally speaking, to make catechisms and confessions common books out of which lessons are repeated to a teacher in a day-school, unless one wish to

run the risk of making them distasteful ever after, and so creating an aversion to religion, or at least to the formularies of it."

"Everything, therefore, which helps a man to think, or assists in the development of his mental resources, is favorable to religion. The more an individual learns, the longer he reflects, the better subject does he become for religious impression and training. All science contributes to the progress of revealed truth. The advocates, therefore, of the latter, instead of *fearing*, should *welcome* the triumphs of the former as illustrating the operations of the same Almighty Being whose footsteps are seen alike in nature and in revelation. If, then, the public schools which the plan of the Lancashire Association proposes be not *directly* religious—if the distinctive doctrines of one sect be not taught in them—they will at least be subservient to true religion. They will strengthen the mind, and thereby prepare it for the reception of Divine truth. They will help the pupil to trace God's laws in nature and providence, conducting him to a point where others may take him up and lead him into the ulterior region of sacred truth. Theoretical knowledge is good in itself. These schools propose to give a considerable amount of it. But in addition to that, they will seek to inculcate the immutable principles of justice, temperance, and the like, by holding up practical examples of them in history. They are meant to imbue the youthful mind with those moral maxims which lie at the foundation of all religion. Is not this sufficient? The objector says no. You must have far more than this. You must have what I consider *true religion*. But they are meant to be schools for *all*; and true religion means different things in the mouth of different professing Christians. We cannot have *the true religion* of each sectary, and at the same time avoid infringing on the rights of conscience. We want to preserve those rights inviolate; and to have all taught as far as practicable in the public schools."

Extract of a Lecture before the same, by Rev. FRANCIS  
TUCKER, of Manchester.

“ And now I ask the devoted Sunday school teacher, (a character whom I love and honor,) whether a good secular education on the week day will not prepare for him more hopeful pupils on the Sabbath ? I ask him whether he would not gladly be spared the toil and drudgery of teaching the a b c of elementary instruction ? I ask him whether, when his whole soul has panting to lead his scholars on at once to the highest themes of human contemplation, he has not often felt himself chained and fettered by their inaptitude to think, or even their inability to read ?”

Extract from a Prize Essay by Rev. EDWARD HIGGINSON,  
published by the Central Society of Education in England.

“ In no country does the mutual intolerance of religious sectarianism display itself more actively than in England. It mars almost every project of benevolence in which the cooperation of numbers is to be desired. Each little sect is more ready to insist upon the introduction of its own special purposes into the plan, than to contribute to the general strength ; and the consequence commonly is, that each party pursues its own distinct course apart from the rest, and what ought to be the general cause of philanthropy, becomes in a great degree, the scene of contention and rivalry among opposing sects. In nothing is this more lamentably apparent than in the matter of education. Let the Sunday schools of the different sects be carefully examined ; and we believe they will be generally found to be devoted rather to the inculcation of the peculiar theology of the sect, than to communication of Scriptural or general knowledge, or the cultivation of moral and devotional principles. Partisans, of whatever religious creed, deeming religion the highest branch of education, insist, and rightly enough, that no education

can be complete without it ; they only mistake in their application of this principle, when they severally insist upon their own distinctive doctrinal views as being essential to that religious education which they would have the young receive at school. Instead of being satisfied to instil those leading principles of morality, respecting which they all agree, and to cultivate those religious affections in the young which are essentially the same in all devotional hearts, whatever be the particular class of doctrinal opinions to which they may afterwards attach themselves, the zealots of each party can see no sufficient religious education short of the inculcation of their own peculiarities of doctrine ; and they accordingly withdraw to separate educational methods, and endeavor to perpetuate in the young, whom they respectively claim as their own, a higher regard for their trivial distinctions of opinion, than for the great principles and greater habits of intrinsic piety and goodness. At this present moment, a religious cry is ready to break out against any attempt on the part of the State, to institute schools for the general instruction of the people, which, if instituted by the State for the use of all, must, of course, abstain from espousing the religious peculiarities of any. The zealots of all religious parties are already agreeing among themselves, that 'education without religion' would be worse than no education at all ; and they feel convinced that any system proposed by the State would be an education without their own religious peculiarities. They know that any truly national plan must be free from the sectarianism of all sects whatever ; and they do not perceive how it might be so, and yet be intrinsically and beautifully religious. The zealous and the bigoted are almost always the leaders of each party ; while the timid and the indifferent, by simple acquiescence, give their numerical strength to the movements of the party, and the more enlightened and liberal too often hold aloof from the evidently useless conflict, in which their liberality of princi-



ple would be vulgarly denounced as heresy, and their moderation of spirit as a lack of zeal for God.

Extract from a Prize Essay by MRS. G. R. PORTER, published by the same Society.

“If an extensive system of education be advocated, dispassionate enquiry as to the best means of promoting the wished-for end, and sanguine hope as to the benefits which are to arise from such an undertaking, are immediately interrupted and disturbed by the question importunately asked—“What religion is to be taught?” Parties soon lose sight of the ennobling subject—the raising and improving of our species; and forget themselves in angry invective and virulent accusation; giving melancholy proof that education has indeed been hitherto woefully neglected, since it has failed to subdue that exclusive and intolerant spirit, which thus mixes itself up with our better feelings, and would crush everything that is good and useful in our nature. Before we enquire “What religion is to be taught?” we should ask “what *is* religion?” Does it consist in the belief of particular dogmas and creeds, or in that vital principle of the soul which purifies and exalts our nature and should be the prime mover of all our actions? The religion of Christ, which teaches men to love each other as brethren—which should lead them to exercise mutual charity and forbearance, and to join together heart and soul in transmitting and diffusing its Divine blessings to future generations by means of education—this religion is made the ostensible motive for hostility and opposition, and for counteracting every endeavor which does not originate in the exclusiveness of sectarianism. Surely there *must* be some mistake here. Religion cannot be inimical to good. This cannot be religion. Let us then shake off its unworthy counterfeit, and let us in the holy spirit of genuine Christianity fairly enter upon the subject; let us, if possible, dismiss all angry feelings, all rooted prejudices, and institute a calm investigation as to the best manner of meeting and settling this great question.”

Extract from an address by **HIRAM KETCHUM**, Esq., (Presbyterian), before the American Bible Society.

"You all know that it is an elementary principle of American law, and the American Constitution, and of American hearts, that the government has no right to raise money by tax for the support of the Christian religion. And it is a great elementary principle in American law and American politics, and of all American concerns, that religion here is to be supported by voluntary contributions. It is our glory, our joy, that religion with us is upheld by free hearts. Men may tax themselves, and I thank God they do tax themselves, for the support of religion; but the State has no right to lay a tax for this purpose.

It follows of necessity that these schools, maintained by a tax raised by the State, are not nurseries for instruction in religion. It is acknowledged in them; it is recognized by them. But the peculiar doctrines of any one sect must not be taught in schools supported by any moneys raised by a tax on the people. Hence, schools furnished by the State, provide for the education of the children, as common elementary schools, for instruction in the common branches of education, and no more. Religious instruction is left to the parents, to spiritual teachers, to religious friends, and to Sabbath schools. But here, no instruction is given in any doctrines peculiar to any denomination of Christians."

Extract from a Lecture upon the use of the Bible in common schools, by **Rev. HEMAN HUMPHREY**, D. D., President of Amherst College, delivered before the American Institute of Instruction, August, 1843.

"There is, I am aware, in the minds of some warm and respectable friends of popular education, an objection against incorporating religious instruction into the system, as one of its essential elements. It cannot, they think, be done without bringing in along with it the evils of sectarianism. If this objection could not be obviated, it would, I confess, have great

weight in my own mind. It supposes that if any religious instruction is given, the distinctive tenets of some particular denomination must be inculcated. But is this at all necessary? Must we either exclude religion altogether from our Common Schools, or teach some one of the various creeds which are embraced by as many different sects in the ecclesiastical calendar? Surely not. There are certain great moral and religious principles, in which all denominations are agreed, such as the ten commandments, our Saviour's golden rule, every thing, in short, which lies within the whole range of duty to God and duty to our fellow men. I should be glad to know what sectarianism there can be in a schoolmaster's teaching my children the first and second tables of the moral law—to "love the Lord their God with all their heart, and their neighbor as themselves"—in teaching them to keep the Sabbath holy, to honor their parents, not to swear, nor drink, nor lie, nor cheat, nor steal, nor covet. Verily, if this is what any mean by sectarianism, then the more we have of it in our Common Schools, the better. 'It is a lamentation, and shall be for a lamentation,' that there is so little of it. I have not the least hesitation in saying, that no instructor, whether male or female, ought ever to be employed, who is not both able and willing to teach morality and religion in the manner which I have just alluded to. Were this faithfully done in all the primary schools of the nation, our civil and religious liberties, and all our blessed institutions, would be incomparably safer than they are now. The parent who says, I do not send my child to school to learn religion, but to be taught reading, and writing, and grammar, knows not "what manner of spirit he is of." It is very certain that such a father will teach his children anything but religion at home; and is it right that they should be left to grow up as heathens in a Christian land? If he says to the schoolmaster, I do not wish you to make my son an Episcopalian, a Baptist, a Presbyterian, or a Methodist, very well. This is not the schoolmaster's business. He was not hired to teach sectarianism. But if the parent means to say, I do not send my child to school to have you

teach him to fear God, and keep his commandments, to be temperate, honest and true, to be a good son and a good man, then the child is to be pitied for having such a father; and with good reason might we tremble for all that we hold most dear, if such remonstrances were to be multiplied and to prevail."

Extracts from a Lecture delivered by Rev. JOHN M'CAFFREY, D. D., President of Mount St. Mary's College, in St. Patrick's Hall, Philadelphia, Dec. 8th, 1852, being the first of a course of Lectures on Education.

"If, at the present day, there be universal consent among men upon any point, it is in admitting the vast importance of education. All seem to agree that it is a question of deep concern to governments as well as individuals, and to men of all classes and in all the relations of life—to the farmer, mechanic, and merchant, no less than the philosopher or statesman. But this wonderful harmony of minds may, in part, be accounted for by the vagueness of the term designating the thing about which all seem to be agreed. For education has no fixed meaning; it may signify, for example, either the process of imparting knowledge and culture, or the knowledge and culture thus imparted: and, restricted to the latter sense, it may mean any amount of knowledge and culture, from the mere rudiments, reading, writing, and cyphering, up to the diversified and comprehensive attainments of thorough scholarship; or, reaching beyond this to something infinitely higher and more important, it may include the formation of the moral and religious character, the training of the soul for everlasting happiness or misery."

"Is it right then or is it wrong for the State to take out of your hands the business of education and attempt to manage it for the people, though always at the people's expense?"

It is not to be denied, that the State, or the whole community organized and acting through its constituted authorities, has a deep interest in the matter of education. True knowledge is favorable to virtue: ignorance leaves a man more lia-



ble to error and to vice. But there can be no greater fallacy than to argue, that because it concerns the State to have virtuous and enlightened citizens, therefore it is the duty of the public authorities to take upon themselves the task of making men enlightened and virtuous. Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, are all great public interests : must the government therefore instruct and form the farmer, the mechanic and the merchant ? The press and the pulpit are both means of diffusing knowledge ; both may be employed with powerful effect in the cause of truth and morality. Are we then to stamp on our governments the features most repulsive to us in the monarchies of the old world ?

I am not denying, that the State may encourage education and by various indirect means promote the diffusion of knowledge and growth of virtue. I am only showing, that these are not the immediate ends of civil government and are not to be attained by legislative enactments, and expensive public institutions. The object of civil government is the protection of life, liberty and property. The constituted authorities, however appointed and by whatever name they are called, must have power enough to render these secure, and not only may, but must do what is necessary for their security. The problem under all governments that pretend to be free, is this : how far must individual liberty be restricted for the public good—how much power must be vested in our rulers, that they may fulfil the purposes of their creation ? A nice and difficult problem and not so easily solved as our stump-orators and newspaper editors would have us believe, nor to be decided everywhere alike. But who will venture to assert that the ends of government demand, that the parent be restricted in the exercise of his right and duty in respect to the education of his children ? Or who will seriously affirm, that the appointing of school-masters, the regulation of school-discipline, the choice of books and determining the system of instruction, are among the powers necessarily entrusted to our political rulers ? And if not necessary to the ends of govern-

ment, then the assumption of a power, which rudely touches the most sacred relation and violates the holy rights of a parent, is manifestly a wicked and odious tyranny. It is no extenuation of its guilt to say, that it is assumed and exercised only for the good of both parent and child. That, as we shall see, is at least a question."

"Compulsory attendance on the established course of instruction is the inevitable logical conclusion from the premises assumed in the theory of education by the State. And will not consistency require this stern logic to be carried out here as elsewhere? It has been proposed in various parts of the country, and practically tried at least in one, to send the constable on the singular errand of catching children and dragging them to school."

"But compulsory education is a tyranny too gross and flagrant to excite any serious alarm. It will not be introduced; it would not be submitted to. It is impracticable while the great principles of common law are retained, while civil rights are recognized and government is not an absolute despotism. I can understand a House of Refuge, or Correction, to which juvenile delinquents are sent for punishment, or reform, after conviction; but what are we to think of a Free School, which is at the same time, a prison—its pupils picked up by the police—the blessings of education forced on the unwilling urchins, their parents equally unwilling, by the tender mercies of the constabulary and other city authorities or dignitaries of the State!!!

There is another logical conclusion implied in the theory of State education, to which men shut their eyes because it is either unpalatable or unpopular. Still it is there, and you must either give up your own conclusion by denying those premises, or take this too along with them. For if it is the office of the State to educate, because it is her highest interest to have enlightened and virtuous citizens, then religion which undertakes directly to enlighten and guide the consciences of men, and, when necessary, to reform their morals, is a still more important concern to her and better entitled to her part

ronage than any school system : and the Church is the proper dispenser of her bounties and minister of her benevolent wishes. Do you maintain that the school-house is a better instructor and a truer friend to morals, than the sanctuary and the pulpit : then you stand an avowed infidel. If you do not, be consistent and call for an established Church with its regular endowments, glebes, tithes, advowsons, livings, parsonages—all !”

“When education was their own concern, they kept the school-house open from six to twelve months : the State salaries the teacher two, three or five months only in the year. His competency, moral fitness and fidelity were then a question for themselves : they are now relieved from all consideration on the subject. Then the field was fairly open to competition, and superior merit in the teacher was rewarded with more extensive patronage : his remuneration in fact depended on his ability and success. These were elements of freedom in harmony with all our other institutions ; and while the old system was, like everything else, liable to objections and abuses, it was also susceptible of improvement : it was in fact continually improving : and the responsibility and the remedy were always in the right hands,—in the sense of duty, the enlightened self-interest and affections of the parent. But all this is regulated by authority now, and the parent has no influence, no responsibility and no choice : he must either send his children to the duly commissioned teacher, whatever his demerits or offences, or keep them at home and feel, that he is defrauded and they are wronged by the misguided policy of the State. More individuals may learn to read and write : but in rural districts generally there is less interest, less care and solicitude about a *proper education* and the *proper means* of securing it, because it is no longer the business of the parent, but of the State, or those whom it appoints.”

“I return to the great question, whether the State has the right to take upon itself the office of instruction. If it does assume that office, what, I ask, is to be its course in relation to the great concern of religion ? Shall it introduce it into the

Academy and School-room or shut it out altogether? If it take the former alternative, we have so far a State religion; if the latter, the education wants what we and the great majority of our fellow-citizens hold to be an essential element: it is unchristian, Godless! In a community made up of men professing every variety of creed, from the lowest Deism, Pantheism, and Atheism, up to the fullest Christian orthodoxy, what religion shall the government select as the subject of its teaching? Shall it be the doctrines held by any one denomination of Christians? By what right is the Jew or infidel excluded from the benefit of the common schools? He too is a citizen; his property is taxed and his religious liberty is guaranteed by the fundamental law."

"To repel the charge of sectarianism, the directors and advocates of the common school system may repeat what has often been alleged, that the points of doctrinal agreement among Christians shall be the only articles inculcated in the public schools. Points of agreement among Christians! Jews and infidels are then disfranchised; they are at least ignored in practice, though the system in theory is made for all."

"A government, which professes to protect all men alike in the full enjoyment of the most perfect liberty of conscience, and which is forbidden by the fundamental law either to establish or favor any one form of belief and worship more than any other, cannot exercise the office of teaching religion. To require even the reading of the Bible is so far to patronize one system of religious notions in opposition to another. It is sectarianism of the meanest and most odious kind; because it is practically a combination of all the sects, who agree in nothing else, to drive us Catholics from the public schools or force us to violate our consciences."

"It is an important question, as I have endeavored to show you even in its purely political aspect. The wisest men and farthest-seeing patriots will in this matter incline to limit rather than enlarge the authority of the State. A tendency towards centralization, a disposition to remit the burdens and duties of life to the paternal care of government, is not a symp-



tom of liberty, but of despotism. As population becomes more crowded and society more corrupt, (and no man can deny that corruption and crime are in this country advancing faster even than population,) as the disorders of the body politic become more alarming, the public authorities must necessarily be armed with greater power or exercise more freely the powers they have already. The rights and immunities of the citizens will grow less as the government grows stronger. Is it prudent then for a friend of freedom to put in the hands of the civil authority so potent an instrument as the absolute control of education? Should parents abdicate their rights and citizens their liberty for such a purpose? It may be very well for a monarchy relying on a standing army for security and stability, to take under its paternal charge the Church, the press, the university and the school-house. But is it not a strange spectacle under the sun, when a free people, not of necessity, but of choice, devolve a most sacred private duty upon public authority, and voluntarily divest themselves of a right so dear,—an interest so important as that of freely educating their own children?"

"It was one of Louis Philippe's deadliest sins against social order and the rights of conscience, one of the crimes, by which he merited his dethronement and exile, that he upheld an atheistical university in its monopoly of education and in its unwearied labors to diffuse, by its false teachings, the poison of infidelity through all the veins and arteries of youthful France."

Extract from an Essay on Denominational Schools in the Pennsylvania School Journal, by ELIAS SCHNEIDER.

"A distribution of the school fund among our religious denominations would, of course, if properly done, have to be made according to the numerical strength, and the number of children, in their schools. The officers of the State would therefore need a yearly census before this fund could be equitably apportioned. Now how would such a census be made?"

Would it include only the children of the different religious denominations, or as many more as each denomination could induce to enter its schools from those whose parents make no profession of religion? Suppose the latter. Look then for a moment at the consequences. Each religious body would of course make its utmost exertions to outstrip the others in efforts to acquire strength from those having no religious connection. Hence would follow jealousies and even hatred from members of one religious sect against those of another, growing always in vehemency as one sect might be outstripped or over-reached by the others. And nothing could operate more seriously against genuine religion than such an unhappy state of things.

But it must not be supposed that all those who make no profession of religion, would be willing to send their children to schools over which they could not be allowed to have any control. Being wholly denominational in their character, the voice of none could be regarded in what related to their management, except those who belonged to these denominations. There would be a necessity, then, of assigning also a just portion of the school fund to those having no religious connection. For, being taxed alike with the rest, their claim upon this fund would be as just as that of any other body of men, and their separate schools would be equally entitled to support."

"In regard to the last position, a few remarks must suffice. There are some sects in our country, who call themselves religious bodies, but who advocate and openly practice what is contrary to ordinary morality. Among these may be mentioned one, which advocates and practices polygamy. This sect, it seems, increases with no ordinary additions to its number every year. It would have an equally just claim upon its portion of the school fund, if a distribution were made. And in assigning its share of this money, the State would be virtually encouraging a doctrine not only in favor of immorality, but in violation of statute law, and the sect would thus use this money to increase its power to do evil.

Suppose the present school system were abolished, as it actually would be if the school fund were distributed among our different denominations, would it not also bring about a total destruction of all schools in the rural districts?"

Extract from the speech of Rev. Dr. BOND, (Methodist) before the Common Council of New York city, October, 1840, upon the application of the Roman Catholics for an allowance from the public school money for their separate schools.

"But it is alleged that we are here to oppose Roman Catholics. Sir, we would oppose the Methodists if the same application was made by them. I would have stood here myself to oppose them, for I do not fear nor dodge any responsibility. We believe that all mankind are individually undergoing a moral and intellectual probation before God; and that we cannot, without incurring the divine displeasure, substitute this probationary relation, by one before any man, or any number of men, whether Pope or Council, or the Methodist General Conference. None of these can release us from our obligations as probationers before God. "To our own master we stand or fall." If the Methodist Episcopal Church had issued her mandate to me not to appear before this body, and not to oppose this application, I would have set her authority at naught. We believe that these Public Schools are necessary to our form of government; that it is not safe to commit the preservation and perpetuation of the public liberty and of our civil institutions to an ignorant, untaught multitude, to those who will be incapable of appreciating their value, or who may be made the dupes of better educated but more wicked men. We say it is necessary to the perpetuation of public liberty that the community be educated—that all who exercise the elective franchise, should be taught to value our civil institutions. But we say that no sectarian body can do this; it must be done by all together. If you were to give all this money to the sects, it could not be done—it can only be done by a common system, for if

all the sects had this money divided amongst them, there is one half of the community who would not suffer their children to be taught by them. What then is to become of these children? Our public liberties demand a public universal system of education, and this can only be effected by agents appointed by the State, and answerable to the State; it can never be done if the money be given to any denomination, or divided among all the sects. Sir, we allege this is the broad principle on which the Common Schools are established; take this away, and you have no right to lay a tax at all; you could not lay a tax with any justice for this purpose. If the money is to be distributed among the different sects and denominations of christians, and they are to use it as they think best, even for their own proselyting purposes—I speak of no particular denomination—all have their preferences and peculiar tenets, and all desire to make converts to their belief—I say give the money to this end, and what follows? Why, that you ought to tax them severally according to what they receive. What right have you to tax Roman Catholics for the support of Methodist Schools? or what right have you to tax Methodists for the support of Presbyterian Schools? In short, what right have you to tax any sect for the support of the Schools of rival sects? You have first to ascertain what each requires to support the schools under their care, and then to tax that denomination to the necessary amount. You have no right to tax me as a Methodist, for the Roman Catholic Schools but only on the ground that education is necessary for the preservation of our public liberties and for the public safety.”

Extracts from an article on education in the Westminster Review for July, 1851.

“Upon the second question—*The mode of imparting religious instruction*, the friends of secular schools lay down two positions :—that the schoolmaster is not the person best



fitted for religious teaching ; and that it is not wise to delay the acquisition of elementary knowledge until all sects are agreed upon the precise forms and points of doctrine which should be superadded.

The misconceptions that exist on this part of our subject are more numerous than upon any other ; and they are extraordinary ; for, on examination, it will be found that the separation of religious from secular instruction, especially as regards *credal* theology, is not a novel theory, but the rule rather than the exception of the existing system. The religious instruction now imparted to the children of the working classes is almost exclusively confined to *Sunday* schools, with which no one proposes to interfere ; and in Sunday schools the teachers are not the masters of common day schools, but the zealous junior members of a religious congregation, assisted by the minister."

"In infant schools, where the requirements of secular instruction are less urgent, religion is made a leading feature of the system ; but here, again, we may remark that the infant school system does not include *credal* theology. From the majority of infant schools catechisms are excluded."

"The best schools, whether in England or on the Continent, are those in which this division of labor is carried to the greatest extent. The worst are those in which some half-educated broken-down tradesman undertakes to teach everything, and to act in the double capacity of schoolmaster and divine.

It is not for want of schools, nor for want of schools in which religion is nominally taught, that the working people of this country form neither an instructed nor a religious population ; but from the too great preponderance of schools of the latter class. So much is thrown upon a narrow capacity, that nothing is effectually accomplished. Boys leave a charity school at fourteen, often without the ability

to make out a grocer's bill, and without a sentiment connected with religion beyond that of the weariness of an unsupportable task. Prison Inspectors report, that among the juvenile delinquents at Parkhurst, and other prisons, there are lads of fifteen—a dozen times committed for as many different offences—as well versed in the Catechism and Liturgy as any member of the bench of Bishops. Of what avail can be religion if it be degraded into a mere exercise of memory? Better, surely, no teaching of religion than such modes of teaching it as reach neither the heart nor understanding, and end in practical infidelity.

It is for the interest of religion, that in every branch of education proper regard should be had to the division of labor, and the division of time. It is injurious to religion to attempt to reconcile incompatibilities. Arithmetic is one subject; theology is another. Both are best taught separately, and at seasons separately appropriate to each; for "to every thing there is a season, and a time to every purpose under heaven." It is an awful experiment, fraught with a moral danger no one can adequately estimate—a danger involving the confounding together in the mind of all distinctions between formal conventionalities and sincere piety, to attempt amidst the uproar of a school-room, to call off the attention of a child from a sum in the Rule of Three,\* or a fault in grammar, to questions of God and eternity.

The *beau ideal* of religious instruction, would be that of a

\*In a work on 'Elementary Arithmetic,' published by a former Secretary of the National School Society (the Rev. J. C. Wigram), the subject was illustrated by questions of the following tenor:—

"The Children of Israel were sadly given to idolatry, notwithstanding all they knew of God. Moses was obliged to have 3,000 men put to death for this grievous sin. What digits would you use to express this number?"

"Of Jacob's four wives, Leah had six sons, Rachel had two, Billah had two, and Zillah had also two. How many sons had Jacob?"

We quote these as an example of that false system of congruities which we deprecate, and which cannot be too earnestly condemned by religious minded men; but it is gratifying to be able to note that better counsels are now beginning to prevail in the National School Society, and that the work from which the above are taken is now laid aside in most of their schools.

school supplied with efficient teachers for all mechanical, moral, and intellectual processes; each teacher restricted to the one department for which he might be the best fitted; and the teacher of religion, a man such as Goldsmith's "Vicar of Wakefield,"—one to win the affections of youth; assembling a class for conversational lessons on God's providence, in a room apart, free from all din and tumult, and the intrusion of less solemn associations. There are schools in which this *beau ideal* is realized. Among them some under the superintendence of the present Dean of Hereford, Mr. Dawes. That they are not more numerous is to be lamented."

Persons wishing to enquire further into this subject may consult *New Englander* for April, 1848.

Horace Mann's 12th Report on Schools of Massachusetts.

Dr. Ryerson's Reports on Canada Schools for 1851 and 1852.

Correspondence between Dr. Ryerson and Catholic Bishop of Toronto.

Correspondence between Horace Mann and Rev. M. H. Smith.

Reports of Presbyterian Board of Education.

Willm's Treatise on Education, 67, 92, 132, and preface 60.

Debate before the Common Council of New York, on the petition of the Catholics for a portion of the school fund for their own Schools.

Princeton Review, July, 1846.

Metropolitan Review for March, 1853, published at Baltimore.

Various articles in the Reviews.

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# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. II.

PROVIDENCE, MARCH, 1853.

NO. 3.

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## OUR MAGAZINE.

We have undertaken the publication of the Rhode Island Educational Magazine for the second year. We shall send it as we did last year to the clerk of every school district, and to the Chairman and Clerk of every School Committee, without charge. These copies are intended to be preserved by the officers to whom they are sent, and handed over to their successors.

We wish to make the Magazine a repository of all the school documents of the State, and of the towns. A revised catalogue of books suitable for district and small private libraries, is nearly completed, and will soon be published.

If School Committees who intend to print their reports will send them to us, we can have them printed as cheaply as it could be done elsewhere, and give them an insertion in the Magazine besides. The committees would thus aid us in our design of making the Magazine a repository of all information relating to the progress of our schools; and would secure for their reports a circulation in every town in the State, and in many places out of the State.

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Few educational periodicals are well supported in this country. In a small State like Rhode Island, a Magazine devoted to education cannot be supported by subscribers, and must rely to some extent upon the generosity of the public for its expenses.

At the Teachers' Union Institute, held at Valley Falls, Feb. 12, 1853, we took an opportunity to make a statement to the teachers present relating to the publication and management of the Magazine. The following resolutions were subsequently passed by the meeting :

*Resolved*, That the R. I. Educational Journal is an important publication, and ought to be continued and sustained.

*Resolved*, That it is the duty of the Teachers in this State, to use their utmost efforts in its circulation and continuance.

*Resolved*, That the Commissioner of Public Schools is entitled to the gratitude of the State for his able and efficient labors in sustaining the Periodical, and his endeavors to elevate the character of the Schools."

We give below the names of some of the Educational Periodicals, which have been or are now published in Canada and the United States.

Massachusetts Common School Journal, 14 vols. Discontinued.

Connecticut School Journal, 8 vo. Begun Aug. 1848. Edited by Henry Barnard.

Massachusetts Teacher, monthly, 32 p. 8vo. Begun Jan. 1848. \$1.

Journal of Education, Bath, Me., 8 p. 4 to., semi-monthly. Begun Oct. 1851. \$1.

Ohio Journal of Education, 32 p. 8vo. monthly. Begun Jan. 1852. Columbus. \$1.

R. I. Educational Magazine, monthly. 50 cts. per annum in advance.

American Educationist, 32 p. 8vo. monthly. Cleveland. Begun Jan. 1852. Maltby & Wright, Editors. \$1.

Pennsylvania School Journal, 32 p. 8vo. monthly, Lancaster. Begun Jan. 1852. Thos. H. Burrowes, Editor. \$1.

Rural New Yorker, published by Moore, at Rochester.

New York Teacher, monthly, published at Albany.

The Journal of Education, monthly, published at Toronto, in Canada, and edited by Dr. Ryerson, Superintendent of Schools.

From the Ohio Journal of Education.

## THE JOINT EDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

A Report, read before the Ohio State Teachers' Association, at Sandusky City, on the 8th of July, 1852, by Prof. J. H. FAIRCHILD, A. M., of Oberlin.

The topic to which the attention of the Association is invited, is one which involves inquiries of some delicacy, and on which some diversity of sentiment exists. But it cannot be necessary to offer an apology for discussing any question which lies within the range of the responsibilities of the teacher, and which affects the welfare and destiny of the youth of our land. Nor can any difference of sentiment which may exist among us, excuse us from inquiry. Co-laborers in a common field, we are gathered to give our different impressions of the work before us, and contribute individually our mite to the common interest. These different impressions we may freely state, without being understood as wishing to make any attack upon the views of others, or to obtrude, in an offensive way, our own. It is thus that the experience and thoughts of each become the property of all, and we return to our various departments of labor grateful for the help which we have mutually received.

With such an aim, the suggestions now offered, have, I trust, been conceived, and in the same spirit they will doubtless be accepted.

What provision shall be made for the different sexes, in the arrangements for their education, is a question which presses with much interest upon educationists of the present day. Shall separate schools be organized for them, or shall they be conducted together along the paths of science? The antecedent question—shall woman be educated at all—has already been answered. This question is involved in the choice of civilization instead of barbarism. The race can make no progress, while each alternate member of it is doomed to the degradation of ignorance. We may rejoice that this fact is at length understood, and that it remains only to adjust the details—to arrange the manner in which the blessings of education shall be secured to woman—and perhaps to determine the extent to which she shall enjoy them. Educated she must and will be. All agree in aiming at this result. The next question is, shall our schools admit the sexes on common principles, to equal advantages, or shall they be separated in the pursuit of education, each having its distinct system of appliances for arriving at a common end?

In the prosecution of this inquiry, I shall endeavor, first, to present some reasons in favor of the joint education of the

sexes; and then review objections which may be urged against such an arrangement.

The most obvious advantage to be derived from bringing the two sexes into the same system of schools, is the *economy* of the plan. It is the aim of the friends of education to bring our schools within the reach of the greatest possible number. To facilitate this object, it is desirable that the cost of instruction be as low as possible. To furnish a complete system of schools to each sex, would double or nearly double, the expense of instruction. The cost of educating both sexes together in any given locality, is but a trifle more—often no more, than of educating one alone. If the sexes be separated, the expense must be greatly increased, or the number of schools must be diminished by enlarging the district limits of each. In either case, a large number would be excluded from the advantages of the school. Where the population is dense, the difficulty would be diminished, so far as the primary schools are concerned; but for schools of a higher grade, the difficulty would still exist. These schools, especially in the Western States, are not so abundantly supplied with pupils, but that they might receive an equal number in addition, without anything like a corresponding increase in expenditure—in many cases, with the addition of a single teacher. With their present stinted endowments and limited number of pupils, they must lack that efficiency which a more liberal support would give. On the supposition that the two sexes are to be furnished with equal facilities for education, with separate schools for each, we must double the number of schools, and thus cripple all, or we must devote half the schools already organized to female education, and thus double the distance from each man's door to a school where his children can secure a thorough education. In the older parts of the country, where wealth is abundant and education properly valued, the number of schools might possibly be doubled, but in our own State the thing is impossible, and will be for many years to come. We must then fall back on the alternative—diminish the number of schools for each sex, and be content that these should merely live when they ought to flourish. Yet it is of great importance that we have as many schools as can be well sustained. A flourishing school is a blessing in any region of country. It stimulates multitudes to aspire after an education, who would never have dreamed of going to a neighboring State, or even to an adjacent county to obtain it. Hence the evil of diminishing the number and curtailing the influence of these schools, by closing their doors against one or the other of the sexes.



Our hypothesis has been, that the two sexes are to be furnished with equal facilities for education. But if they are to be separated in the enjoyment of these facilities, the women of our land will be left without any adequate provision for their education. Thus it has been, and thus it will continue to be. The past furnishes no example, so far as I am aware, of a well endowed seminary for female education—a school with ample provision for instruction in the different departments of solid and polite learning. Female seminaries have been sustained by the reputation and success of individual teachers, who have secured such help as their limited resources would allow. Many of these schools have been blessings to the land; but it is impossible that they should have that efficiency which a thorough organization in the different departments of instruction would give. To the careless observer, it seems more important that the male sex should enjoy the advantages of education, and unless the same school can meet the wants of both, the education of women will be neglected in a utilitarian age and a utilitarian country.

Considerations of economy, and perhaps necessity, have operated to open the doors of nearly all our primary, and even higher schools and academies, to youths of both sexes. It is only in older portions of the land, that we find schools for boys and schools for girls, young gentlemen's classical schools and young ladies' seminaries.

But if economy is the only or chief recommendation of the system, while moral and social evils are involved, we cannot afford the sacrifice. We must have that system of schools which will best accomplish the great object, whatever the cost may be. The best is, in the end, the cheapest.

Let us inquire then, what social and moral advantages seem to result from the joint education of the sexes? We need not look far into the world, to learn that among the most potent influences which operate upon the race, are those which arise from the relations of the sexes. This fact was recognized by the Creator, when they were first introduced to each other in Eden. Every page of history corroborates it. Our entire literature, beyond the range of abstract science, is pervaded by these influences. The whole constitution of society is moulded by them. Whether we will or not, they enter largely into the elements which combine in the education of our youth. These forces we find existing, for good or for evil. We cannot wisely overlook them. We cannot annihilate them. The effort of misguided religionists to obliterate the idea of the relation and the influence of it, by a separation of the sexes, has been a signal failure. It cannot be necessary to repeat the ex-

periment. The order of nature is indicated in the combination of these influences in the family relation ; and that society is most happy, which conforms most strictly to this order ; that civilization is most permanent and deep rooted, which rests upon the firm basis of family organization ; that system of education is most healthful and enduring, which most fully recognizes and sustains this organization. Every kind of socialism, every kind of monasticism but the setting of "the solitary families," has been prolific of corruption. In a school for the joint education of the sexes, the social influences are more like those of home, where brother and sister mutually elevate and restrain each other. That family is unfortunate where the children are all sons ; almost equally unfortunate is a family of daughters. The sons are prone to be coarse or shy, the daughters prudish or unwomanly. The same tendencies may be observed in a school where the male and female influences do not regulate and improve each other. Especially is this true of boarding schools, where the young are entirely removed from home influences. If a brother and sister could bear each other company, how much would the parent's anxiety for that son be diminished. He carries with him a part of the influence which has restrained him thus far. The ties which bind him to his home are not so completely severed — The associations which tend to elevate are not broken up. If a sister cannot accompany him, there are sisters in other families, whose influence will, in a measure, make up for her absence.

But it is not enough to look at the influence in the aggregate. There are particulars which combine to make up the general influence. *A sense of responsibility to society at large*, is one of these particulars. A school for young men becomes a community within itself, with its own standard of morality and its laws of honor. The irregularities and excesses of youth are looked upon as venial offences, if indeed they do not lose entirely the character of vice. Obedience to the laws of the land, and to the regulations of good society, is of less importance than conformity to the student's code of honor. There are wanting here, to a very great extent, the ordinary restraints of society. Successful scholarship and a fair degree, will cover a multitude of peccadilloes, which in a well regulated community would darken a young man's prospect and tarnish his good name. There are temptations to irregularities which would entirely lose their force under the influence of responsibility to society at large.

Such an isolation of interests cannot exist, where both sexes are united in the same school. The young man feels

that he is held responsible for his conduct—not merely by a community of his associates, who need the same indulgence with himself, and whom a “fellow feeling renders wondrous kind ;” but by a community which is part and parcel of the earnest working world, and which has the power and the will to link his future destiny with his present character. The restraints are the same as in his own village, where his good name is dear to him, and where he meets a public sentiment not so lenient as that of his wayward associates. Hence wholesome discipline is more easily maintained. There may be careful supervision, and a rigid execution of proper laws, but there is no healthful discipline where the order of the school is not sustained by the public sentiment of that school. If the pupils approve and acquit while teachers censure and condemn, there cannot be much moral power in the administration. It is an occurrence by no means rare, for pupils to sacrifice the approbation of their teachers to the applause of their associates. If the sentiment of the mass be in favor of order you need almost no other influence. Facts on such a point are better than theories and if those may be trusted who have had experience, there is no successful method of securing such a sentiment, than by uniting the sexes in the pursuit of study. It is difficult to put such facts in the form of statistics ; but the concurrent testimony of teachers who have had opportunity to know, may be quite as reliable. It is a matter of every day occurrence, to hear teachers express strong confidence in the influence thus secured in favor of order. A confident opinion on the other side from such a teacher, I have yet to hear.

The influence of this union in the matter of discipline, is doubtless more important for young men than young women. Their wayward tendencies are stronger, and they are more likely to resist wholesome restraint ; but *he* must have attained a degree of recklessness which is rare among young men, who can face the public sentiment of a community of his associates.

Another advantage to be derived from uniting the sexes in the pursuit of education, is a *pure moral atmosphere*—a freedom from that coarseness in thought, and word, and deed, to which young men in their earlier years are prone. There seems to be a period in the life of many youths, while passing from the innocent ignorance of childhood to the sobriety and decency of manhood, when they have a strong tendency to low and vulgar thoughts and impure imaginings. Thrown together in a society by themselves, they stimulate each other to debasing thoughts, and words, and deeds, and their souls

receive a stain from which years cannot recover them. The late Dr. ARNOLD, a distinguished educationist, of England, speaks in strong terms of the degrading corruption prevalent in boarding schools for boys; and no one ever had better opportunities for knowing whereof he affirmed. To young men of maturer age the danger is less, yet there is danger. It cannot be necessary to say that the strongest check upon such corrupting tendencies is the society of virtuous and modest women. The presence of such a woman dissipates low thoughts, as the morning light drives to their hiding place; owls and bats and the creeping things of darkness; and there is, perhaps, no class of persons to whom this influence appeals more strongly than to young men in their earlier years.—There is much that is noble and generous in their character, sometimes even beneath this accumulation of impurity and corruption. It is of untold importance that this better part of their nature be cultivated—that their nobler instincts be brought into action. For the furtherance of this object, there is no influence that will compare in efficiency with proper associations with worthy females. If this be true, is not the school the very place where such an influence is needed; and is not the absence of such an influence an evil?

Closely connected with this is another advantage—*a more correct idea of the character of the female sex*, which young men will obtain under such a system of education. The views which some young men, and I regret to say, some older men, too, cherish of the female character, are grossly false and corrupting. These views, formed under the influence of their coarser instincts and confirmed by a literature coarser still, they propagate from one to another, and lose their self-respect as they lose their respect for female character. This false view of woman, originating in a corrupt imagination, re-acts upon the heart that cherishes it, and stifles the half-formed aspirations for a higher and nobler life. Such an idea of female character cannot be long cherished in the presence of the truly excellent and worthy of the sex. It will scarce gain currency in any assemblage of the young of both sexes, who hold a fair rank in the scale of respectability. For a young man once to have formed such an idea, is often the first broad stride in the path to ruin. To have such an idea corrected is often the only means by which he can be redeemed. Whether such a false idea shall ever be formed, or if formed, whether it shall be corrected in time to save the youth, depends much



upon the character of the school in which he acquires the rudiments of learning.

I have spoken of this false estimate as operating in the case of young men only. That a similar false estimate ever exists on the part of the other sex, I cannot affirm. A ladies' boarding-school abroad for an evening promenade, with a matron in front and two teachers in the rear, would indicate that such might be the case. If so, they need a similar remedy.

In the same range of favorable influences, may be mentioned, *a more thorough common sense as opposed to the morbid sentimentalism incident to early life.* There is no seclusion which can keep the young of either sex long in ignorance of their relations to each other. Their views of life and its realities and objects, will be true or false according to the influences under which they are formed. They may be permitted to meet each other under the wholesome regulations of society, and observe and learn for themselves; or they may be separated to dream out their relations and responsibilities to each other, under the guidance of instinct and fancy, or of a literature lighter than their own dreams. Thus they may become qualified to enter with rational views upon the actual experience of life, prepared both for the good and evil which are mingled so impartially for all; or they may gild their heavens with a golden light, and find no shelter from the storm which falls upon them from a sky which they fondly dreamed would always be serene. Weakness of character must ever result from such false views of life—disappointment and mortification from a misguided fancy, which peoples with angels a world designed only for mortals. A fruitful occasion of such miscalculations, is to educate each sex apart from each other, and leave fancy to work out its ideal undisturbed. A natural safeguard against such errors, is a well-regulated association with each other. The young are deceived by their dreams—the illusion is dispelled by actual experience; or rather, with reasonable opportunity for observation, these dreams would never have had an origin.

Another obvious advantage from the association of the sexes is, *a higher degree of social cultivation.* In this particular, perhaps more than in any other, the benefit is mutual. Each sex must form a part, at length, of general society.—Those who have enjoyed the advantages of education ought to take a prominent place in society. Their education ought

to fit them for this. But if, in acquiring this education, they are almost divorced from society for a term of years, they are not only fitted, but they are unfitted, to act the part required of them. This seclusion takes place at a period when they are most susceptible to social cultivation, the period when their social habits become fixed, almost beyond the hope of change. It is undoubtedly true that the student owes his first attention to study rather than to the claims of society. The same may be said of all, even those engaged in the active duties of life. Social claims are rather incidental. They are, nevertheless, important, and respect to them is essential to success in almost every pursuit. The qualifications for meeting those claims must be acquired incidentally. No period of life is set apart for them expressly. If the student can have opportunity for this incidental cultivation it is so much saved. It costs him nothing and is a valuable acquisition. The cultivation of which I speak is not merely, nor chiefly, a matter of etiquette, or of external accomplishment, although these are important; but it pertains rather to mental habits, tastes, and practical views. It is a work of years—the years of youth, and what is lost then can never be fully retrieved.

The cloistered student becomes proverbially careless in his habits, and rough or abrupt or diffident in his manners. Especially is this true, where large numbers of young men are congregated together, without the refining influence which the presence of ladies affords. For evidence of this, note the character, and trace the history of “college commons,” in our land. Almost all our colleges have had at some time a public table, where the young men were permitted or required to take their meals. Almost universally, these commons have been abolished as nuisances in consequence of the turbulent manners and habits which they generated. If any one doubts whether the presence of cultivated ladies would have obviated the difficulty, he must hold not only that the age of chivalry is past, but that common decency cannot be looked for in these degenerate days.

*A wholesome incitement to effort in study* is another advantage naturally resulting. It has been a question involving some difficulty, what healthful stimulus to exertion can be furnished in large schools, efficient yet harmless, in its operation? Very generally a system of grading and of honors has been tried and proved partially successful. That

there are evils connected with it, no one can deny. It is a direct appeal to the spirit of rivalry—a sentiment too low to produce a noble or generous character. Over a limited number in schools it exercises a powerful influence—too powerful for a motive so unworthy. But it lacks efficiency in this respect, that the number of those influenced by it must be small. There can be in each class but few who can cherish any hope of attaining a high standing. After a few struggles the majority cease to strive, and leave the contest to a favored few.

The desire for excellence is natural to all. It is a healthful motive, when properly controlled. It is sufficiently powerful when its natural causes are left to operate. Closely allied to this, is the love of approbation, a universal sentiment, and especially active in the young. Let the two sexes pursue their studies together, and these influences will be a sufficient stimulus to exertion ; separate them, and this power is lost—some artificial stimulus must take the place. Such a statement needs no proof to those who have been at all observant of the developments of human character.

These natural incitements have the advantage of being general in their operation, instead of acting solely on a few. Each aims at a respectable standing, and aims at it the more hopefully, from the fact that no tutor's log-book gives his latitude and departure day by day, with painful definiteness. Success to-day, will, in a measure, obliterate the failure of yesterday, and give him courage for to-morrow. If he cannot stand foremost he can at least maintain himself manfully in his own position, and those whose good opinion he values, and who have watched his course with a kindly feeling, shall distribute the honors. Selfish emulation and narrow minded jealousies can scarcely arise under such a system.

Other advantages might be enumerated, which help make up the general influence arising from the association of the sexes in the pursuit of study. Yet it is difficult to distinguish all the elements which compose this favorable influence. Many of these are so refined as to elude our observation, and yet they may be no less potent in their operations. Continents are raised and depressed by hidden forces which science has not yet demonstrated. The all prevailing power of gravitation, which balances the universe on its central pivot, is known only in its effects. Philosophers "cannot tell whence it cometh, nor whither it goeth." So, many of the influences

which act upon society, come and go without revealing their arrival or departure ; but of these influences our civilization is composed. You may analyze them, or you may fail to do it—they work on silently, and another age shall look upon smiling continents, where now there is only a turbid waste of waters.

The general elevating influence of a proper association of the sexes in society at large, is universally admitted. The most refined researches of social philosophy may fail to explain it : yet there stands the fact ; and who shall deny that the same power operates, with at least equal effect, upon the young when associated as pupils in the same school ?

I am aware that these views may seem to many wholly theoretical, and to have no substantial basis in facts. The difficulty is not, that the facts do not exist, but the statistics on this subject are yet to be collected. Let each gather these statistics for himself, of those who have had experience—from the Professors in a venerable Eastern College, who admit ladies to their lecture rooms, to the missionary teacher of a district school on the western limits of civilization. He will have a different experience from my own, who does not obtain from all these the same testimony.

It remains to notice some of the *objections* which are urged against the joint education of the sexes. Prominent among these, is the general idea, that, because the two sexes are different in physical and mental constitution, and different spheres of education, *they need each a different education*, to adapt them to these spheres. This idea is undoubtedly correct, but it is misapplied. *Where shall this difference of education commence, and what shall be its extent*, are questions which may be profitably pondered. Both sexes need alike the common light and air and other means of physical support, which Heaven has designed for all. No difference of constitution warrants either sex in dispensing with these. It is as obviously true that both equally need the elements of knowledge and intellectual cultivation.—The means by which these are secured must be the same for both. The same patient toil is the price of discipline of mind, whether the purchaser be male or female. We must have for both the same appliances to secure this toil. These appliances are found in our system of schools for general education. No other plan has yet been discovered.

It is a great, and yet prevalent mistake that these schools are intended to qualify their pupils for particular spheres.—



Their aim, from the primary school to the college, should be, to furnish a general cultivation, as a basis of preparation for any or every sphere. The highest, even, of these schools, has missed its aim, when it undertakes to furnish the world with ready-made preachers, lawyers, physicians and engineers. They furnish the materials of which to make them, but leave that particular work to professional schools.

But this subject has already been before the Association, in an able report\* presented at its last meeting. A simple reference to its argument is sufficient.

The sphere of woman is not so different from that of man, but that she needs the same general cultivation, as a preparation for it. It is a remark often made that young ladies should be educated for wives and mothers. Better to say, let them first be educated as human beings, as women—then shall they make such wives and mothers, that “nations shall rise up and call them blessed.”

But shall woman aspire to a liberal education? Shall the College doors be open to her? Why not? The education thus obtained is called liberal—such as becomes freemen, and the sons and daughters of freemen. What right have we to grudge the boon to any who shall have the courage to ask it? And what is there in a liberal education which should not prove a blessing to man or woman?—*But woman does not need it.* This idea savors too much of the sensual maxim, “Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die.”—For what was the human soul made, and what are its wants? A vegetative existence was never meant to satisfy it; and until we adopt the doctrine of the Koran, that woman has no soul, let us not undertake to say that any knowledge which tends to elevate the character and expand the views—any discipline which qualifies for the stern struggle of life, is unnecessary for her. In the way of knowledge and discipline we need all we can acquire; and the strongest even are often impressed with a sense of their own weakness and inefficiency. There are duties in the humblest sphere, for which the highest powers are barely adequate.

*But such an education will unfit woman for the duties which peculiarly belong to her.* This difficulty is felt by those who have mistaken the influence of a liberal education—who have never enjoyed its advantages. There may be

\*Report by Prof. I. W. Andrews, of Marietta, published in the “Journal of Education,” April, 1852, and in R. I. Educational Magazine for January, 1853.

some women of strong literary tastes or public tendencies who are tempted to neglect the claims of domestic life. But a generous education will not rob woman of her nature, nor lead her to despise her birthright. It takes her to some mountain-top, from which she can survey her land of promise, a broad realm of rivers and streams, of walled towns and waving groves, on which the smile of Heaven like a glorious sunlight rests. Is she less prepared to possess that land than the plodding denizen of the valley, whose whole view of life has been circumscribed by those mountain tops? With woman, as with man, it is the shallow draught that intoxicates. It is the part of the boarding school miss, who has "completed her education" by one year's exercise in the accomplishments to affect contempt for the homely utilities of life. Let her soul expand under a more liberal culture, and she will soon learn that she was unworthy to loose the latchet of her mother's shoe.

*But are not the ornamental branches designed especially for woman?* The ornamental branches have their place—they are good for women and for men. But to make them a substitute for thorough discipline and solid learning is like dining on ice creams and jellies. They are not sufficient for one who has any work to do. The general education which is profitable for man, will be good for woman, so long as she shall have a share in the great work of life.

Again, it is sometimes, perhaps not often, objected, that in the higher branches of study, *young ladies will not be able to maintain their standing with young men*. No such difficulty is experienced in the primary school, nor does there seem to be any indication of a tendency towards it.—Precisely where and when the difficulty is to begin, we are not informed. There may have been instances in which young ladies have failed to maintain an honorable standing in classes with young men. If this has been the case more frequently than the reverse, the difference should be attributed to the prevailing tendency to hasten young ladies forward in their course of study with the idea that months, instead of years, must suffice for them, and thus introduce them, prematurely, to the more abstruse branches. Give them the same antecedent discipline, equal opportunities in other respects, and no such difference will be observed.—I must be excused for speaking with some confidence on this point, having been connected for years past with a school where the sexes pursue the entire range of academi-

cal study in common, from the rudiments of English Grammar and common Arithmetic to the more difficult authors in the learned languages, and abstract and applied mathematics, which the college curriculum presents. Ladies ask no indulgence and receive none. If an experience of twelve years in a school of five hundred of both sexes, in nearly equal numbers, affords ground for judgment, the difficulty may be regarded as wholly ideal.

It is objected again, that *many of the studies pursued in the schools are of such a nature that it is improper for the sexes to pursue them in common*. In regard to a few studies this objection holds good. In such cases let separate classes be organized. "Wisdom is profitable to direct." It cannot be proper to introduce promiscuous classes to the study of Animal Anatomy and Physiology. Yet this is an important branch, and should be pursued by each sex separately. Provision must be made for any other particular instruction, which may be needed by either sex. But, with these few exceptions, no difficulty exists. Proper discrimination will relieve from any embarrassment in the study of even the ancient classics. Such authors as Plato and Xenophon, Cicero and Tacitus—as noble and chaste as the entire range of literature affords, together with many of the poets, may be read in the promiscuous classes, without causing a blush upon the cheek of modesty. It might be well even in schools for young men to keep within such limits.

(*Concluded in next number.*)

## ERRATA

*In the Reports of the Commissioner of Public Schools.*

The following errata have occurred in publishing the Reports, in consequence of being printed at a distance from the writer. The reader is requested to correct them with a pen.

In the report for 1852, (Educ. Magazine, Vol. 1, page 216, line 11) read "There is *no* Board of Education."

In the report for this year, (Ed. Mag. for Jan. and Feb. 1853) page 14, line 3 from bottom, for *of* read *and*; page 18, line 17, for *professions* read *possessors*; page 19, for *Sir Mondi* read *Sismondi*; page 21, line 7 from bottom, for *these* read *the*; page 25, line 7, for *proverb* read *saying*; page 55, line 24, read *to hold religious meetings*; page 56, line 6, read *authorize it to be used*.

## NOTICES OF BOOKS.

**CORNELIUS NEPOS.**—Schmidt & Zumpt's edition. This is a small and convenient edition of an old school classic, with very full English notes, and for a very reasonable price. Published by Blanchard & Lea, Philadelphia.

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# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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## THE JOINT EDUCATION OF THE SEXES.

A Report read before the Ohio State Teachers' Association, at Sandusky City, on the 8th of July, 1852, by Professor J. H. FAIRCHILD, A. M., of Oberlin.

(Concluded from page 99.)

Again, it is objected that a large public school is an unfit place for young women, on account of the *coarseness of manners which necessarily prevails*. The very idea of ladies in such a place seems shocking to many. It is true, that a school where coarseness of manners or morals is generated or tolerated, is no place for young women. A careful father will not expose his daughter to such influences and annoyances. But shall not a thoughtful *mother* be solicitous for her *son*, for whom such influences are deemed entirely appropriate? Is *his* character so proof against all tarnish from improper associations, that his manners may be safely exposed to deteriorating influences? The school that is dangerous for one sex, is unsafe for the other. A modest and decorous demeanor and purity of heart, are graces which young men may well cherish; and no school is suitable for them where these do not flourish. The Muses are regarded as patrons of our seats of learning: and if these worthy dames are as virtuous and as circumspect as they should be, young men can have no objection that their sisters should cultivate their acquaintance. At all events, such an association would mend the manners, both of young men and their parents. The difficulty complained of, arises from the absence of female influence, as before intimated. Supply that deficiency—you remedy the evil and remove the apprehended danger.

Our judgment in regard to the propriety of the matter, must be determined, not by what schools are without the regulating influence of female society, but by what they will be, when that influence is secured. A kindred objection lies in the idea, that such an arrangement for education must divest woman of the softer graces—her peculiar charm—and give her a masculine character. This is a natural apprehension, but I believe a mistaken one. Nature has provided for these graces in woman's constitution. A natural development of that constitution, is all that is requisite. In your system of education guard well the feminine instincts: do no violence to these, and nature will vindicate her own work. It is not a thorough education that will transform a woman into a man. Nor, again, is it a properly regulated association with the other sex, that can so pervert her nature. Such an association is the plan of Providence, and to that plan his work is adapted. Female character cannot be properly developed except in society. Womanhood becomes more beautiful and manhood more strong and elevated, as they are brought out, side by side, in harmonious contrast with each other. A cloistered life is not the thing. Educate woman by herself and you *may* make a *prude*—as little like the trustful woman with a heart that beats, as the rattling skeleton in the cabinet is like the living, breathing human form. Refuse to educate woman, array the influence of the stronger sex against her true elevation, and she sinks a slave, or trampling on her own nature, driven by a stern necessity, she snatches with her own hand the boon which her natural protector should have freely bestowed. 'Tis thus that women of a less sensitive nature aspire to become men. Here is the true origin of the masculine character to which, in our day, there seems to be some tendency.

I do not undertake to deny that there might be such an association of the sexes in a system of education as should mar the female character. Hence, the caution—guard well the instincts of woman's nature. Let not a zeal for her elevation, betray you into any arrangement which offends against decency or propriety. No true regard for woman or the race could open the doors of our medical schools to promiscuous classes of both sexes, or associate women with young men in a dissecting club over a human subject. Such offences against modesty are crimes against our common nature. In the name of all that is decent, we have a right to protest against them. That such a thing is possible, shows

a sad lack in the provisions for woman's education, and a downward tendency in our civilization.

The last difficulty which I notice, and perhaps the head and front of the objection which is made to the idea of educating the sexes together, is the apprehended *tendency to matrimonial alliances*, and the cultivation of attachments looking towards marriage. It is thought there must be more love and match-making than is consistent with propriety or profit.

Here, again, we see the need of a careful collation of facts—of facts collected by careful observation, under circumstances favorable to the discovery of the truth. Those friendly to promiscuous schools, would not shrink from the test. It *seems* an obvious inference that the more young people see of each other, the more free their association—the more certainly will there result hasty attachments and precipitate marriages. But such a conclusion would be unwarranted. There are some considerations which indicate a different result. There must, of course, be *some* association of the sexes, to afford opportunities for the formation of such attachments. Either sex, educated in absolute seclusion, would be safe from such dangers, while the seclusion should be maintained. No such seclusion is attained or aimed at, except perhaps in Romish monasteries. There is no such thing as a flourishing school for either sex, around which the other sex are not gathered in such numbers as to involve the risk referred to. Select the most retired location—plant a college there, and let it have a vigorous growth—you soon have the wide-spreading village, which excludes neither sex. Educational facilities multiply, and soon a female seminary springs up within sight of the college tower. There may, perhaps, be a mountain between, but on its summit there is a "mountain house," surrounded by cascades, romantic glens and other incidents of mountain scenery. On both sides, there are commencements, anniversaries, and exhibitions. These would seem stale indeed if attended by a monotonous assemblage of either sex alone; under such circumstances, to trust to seclusion for protection from the danger apprehended in a promiscuous school, is to lean upon a broken reed. Facts alone can settle the question whether the association of the sexes on such festal occasions is less or more conducive to tender sentiments than a similar association extending over the incidents of every day life. It is an acknowledged principal of our nature, that restraint often serves to stimu-

late desire. The young man who is much secluded from female society is quite as susceptible to the tender passion when occasion arises, as he whose daily life is in the midst of society. The cloistered student is proverbially hasty in the bestowment of his heart. With a limited experience and an active imagination, he discovers an angel where another would see only a worthy young woman ; and as "angel's visits are few and far between," he can scarcely be blamed for seizing the favored hour. "Tis distance lends enchantment to the view." A shade of mystery gives the fancy a back-ground, on which to project his ideal. Cupid is not so blind but that he can see in the open every-day sunlight. Those who have known each other from childhood, are less inclined to be enraptured with each other, than those who meet incidentally on a gala day or at some place of public amusement or resort. There is something in the association of every day life, which checks the extrayagances of passion, and appeals to the judgment rather than to the fancy. For these reasons, there is little danger in general society that the tendency in this direction will lead to excess. Indeed, it is often thought necessary to stimulate this tendency by large social gatherings in balls, levees, and other festivities, as far removed as possible from the common-places of every day life. If such efforts are not successful, those most interested may secure the result by a trip to Niagara, a season at Saratoga, or a winter at Washington. If these things are so, then the real danger of excessive attention to such matters, is in schools where the sexes are educated separately, but are allowed to meet each other on extra occasions, with extra preparation for such a meeting. Hasty and injudicious attachments may be expected under such circumstances more frequently than where the association is more free and more like that which prevails in general society. If such attachments are to be formed—and formed they must be and will be, in spite of bars and bolts, or even convent walls—let there be every opportunity for a fair and rational decision. Let common sense and the interests of common life, be regarded as far as possible ; for, at the best, they have too little to do with such affairs.

There is another advantage in this direction, which promiscuous schools have over those exclusively for young men : the intercourse of the sexes can be better regulated, because both are under the same authority. In schools for young men, so far as I am aware, no effort is made to regulate their



associations with the other sex, except indirectly by requiring their attendance on school exercises and their presence at their rooms during certain hours. When the young of both sexes are under the same laws, wholesome restrictions may be introduced, and thus a higher standard of propriety in such associations attained.

But it is asked, What guaranty is there in promiscuous schools, that those of different ranks in society will not form attachments, and thus derange all the plans of their friends? Let me ask, in return, What guaranty can any system of education afford, that such a calamity shall not ensue? A young woman, kept within the walls of her father's house, guarded by a maiden aunt and taught by governesses and foreign teachers, often frustrates, in the bestowment of her affections, all the schemes of ambitious parents. The only safeguard for any parent, is to instill into the minds of his children sound principles, a suitable regard for his own wishes in all their arrangements—give them an elevated character, and they will not disgrace him by their alliances.

If the views now presented are correct, promiscuous schools are the most economical and the most safe. They afford better facilities for general education, and produce a more symmetrical character. If these views are not correct, the experiments which are presented in various portions of our land, and particularly at the West, will soon expose the error. If such schools have originated in a spirit of "fanaticism or foregone determination," they must come to nought; but if the system is based upon enduring principles of our nature, it must stand. By its fruits it must be known.

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What is the whole creation, but one vast library; every volume in which, and every page in these volumes are impressed with radiant characters of infinite wisdom; and all the perfections of the universe are contracted with such inimitable art in man, that he needs no other book but himself to make him a complete philosopher.

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One great principle which we should lay down as immovably true is, that if a good work cannot be carried on by the calm, self-controlled, benevolent spirit of Christianity, then the time for doing it has not come. God asks not the aid of our vices. He can overrule them for good, but they are not the chosen instruments of human happiness.—*Channing*.

## REPORT

Of the Committee of Public Schools in South Kingstown, R. I.,  
for the year ending June, 1853.

The members of the School Committee appointed by the town, who accepted their appointment, and took the oath of office, as the law directs, were the following: Joel Mann, Thos. A. Hazard, Francis J. Warner, Isaac P. Rodman and Thos. P. Wells.

The Board was organized by the choice of J. Mann, Chairman, and T. A. Hazard, Clerk.

The town also appointed the Chairman to act as Superintendent of all the Schools, with the same compensation as that of last year. This duty he has endeavored to perform with carefulness and particularity; and now in behalf of the Committee respectfully presents to his fellow citizens in town meeting assembled, this Report.

### CONDITION OF THE SCHOOLS.

It gives us pleasure to state, that in general our twenty-two Schools have made an important advance in almost all respects during the year. The order, quietness, and studiousness of the pupils, is worthy of particular commendation. The progress made in the several branches of study,—the thoroughness of instruction,—and the consequent accuracy of the learners, have been highly satisfactory. We have never seen in any part of the country better common Schools. A reference to the appropriate table shows what studies have been pursued. It is no small praise to say, that the text books, which are among the best in geography, arithmetic, and grammar, have been so far mastered in many of the Schools, that in a prolonged and sufficiently critical examination, few mistakes have been committed. A good number of classes have been through Colburn's and Smith's Mental Arithmetic, Thompson's Practical and Higher Arithmetics, Parley's, Smith's, and Morse's

Geographies,—giving the proper explanations. Our teachers have been intelligent, well qualified, and assiduous in the performance of their duties,—the best evidence of which we find in the results attained.

The School House in No. 12, (Perryville) has been remodelled, the session room enlarged, neatly papered and painted, with new desks, supported by cast-iron standards. The improvement, making it a handsome and commodious room, reflects much credit on the district. When three or four other districts shall have made similar alterations or erected new School Houses, the town will be furnished throughout with neat and well arranged buildings for School purposes.

Desirous of obtaining the exact number of Scholars in each district in summer and in winter, and the accurate average attendance, for the apportionment of the public money, we have passed a resolve requiring the teachers to send with the usual printed "Return," the names of all the Scholars, and the number of days each has attended, placed opposite to their names. We ask the trustees of each district to pay attention to this regulation, and see that it be complied with.

The interest taken by our citizens in the subject of education is a pleasing indication of the future success of our excellent School system. True it is that there are some who need to catch a little inspiration of this subject, and to realize more fully its great importance. The liberal provision which the State has made by a fund for the support of Schools, was not designed to exonerate the people from raising among themselves a portion of the means for this purpose. Fortunately, the fund is not sufficient for this; but is an encouragement and aid to the several districts in their efforts to sustain Schools through most of the year. The making of these efforts creates an interest among the people, and infuses vigor into the whole system of operations. We hope, therefore, that no district will be satisfied with having a School only so long as the public money will defray its expenses.

## EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

This important business has for two years devolved almost wholly on the Chairman, and has constituted no small part of his labors. The Committee concur in his suggestion, that it would be well to have the examinations in the presence of the whole Board, which meets on the second Monday in each month, at the Court House, at 2 P. M. We desire, therefore, that the trustees and others concerned would bear this in mind, and inform those whom they wish to engage, of this meeting, so that, if practicable, they may offer themselves at those times.

It is pleasing to observe that the miserable policy of obtaining cheap teachers, because they are cheap, is so generally abandoned. It is presumed that most of the trustees have the wisdom to make it their chief aim to obtain *good* teachers, even if the cost be a few dollars more. Public education is too important a business to be intrusted to novices. The period of youth is too precious to be wasted by any stupifying processes under the name of education.

The business of education is to bring into full and vigorous exercise the intellectual and moral powers of youth—to develop those powers symmetrically, and by practice to prepare them for efficient and honorable action in future life. This requires skillful teachers,—persons who have a knowledge of human nature and a thorough understanding of the branches to be taught.

## VISITATION OF SCHOOLS.

The Chairman has felt that the visitation of the Schools is one of the most important duties assigned to him. In the summer term he visited those which were in operation at that season. In the winter term all were in operation except one, and all were visited as near the commencement of the term as practicable; and all, except three, were visited again and examined near their close. He was disappointed on going to one of these, which is quite remote, to find that it had closed somewhat prematurely on the day previous. With few exceptions, the Schools were continued four months.



The record of daily attendance has been very gratifying in some instances ; but in others it shows that parents need to be urged to a more zealous performance of their duty in this respect. They are perhaps, not aware how injurious it is to their children, and to the School, to have their children detained at home for several days together, or even for one day. The period of life in which school days are enjoyed, is sufficiently brief to induce a diligent improvement of them as they pass.

### DUTIES OF PARENTS.

Under this head we might say much ; but a word to the wise may be sufficient. The necessity of their hearty co-operation with teachers is so great, that we hope to be excused for presenting again this topic. The efficiency of Schools, particularly as it respects discipline, depends greatly on this co-operation. If parents speak ill of the teacher in the presence of children ;—if they take up in their defence when they have been subjects of deserved correction ; if they even pity them as those who have been ill-treated, it will encourage insubordination, neglect of study, and improper behavior, and make it more and more difficult to govern, either by mildness or severity. Parents are surely not aware of the injury they do to their own children, and to the School, and to the neighborhood by such a course.

We might say also that there is an utter impropriety in the direct interference of parents with the exercises and government of the School. The civil statute puts the Schools under the care and supervision of trustees, and of the town committee. If a teacher fails essentially in performing his duty, or does what calls for interposition, a complaint should be made to the above named officers, and they are bound to attend to the matter. All lynch law proceedings are illegal and impolitic. They multiply difficulties and remove none. They weaken the authority of the teacher, and encourage imprudence and idleness.

We may add a word here on the subject of the proper government of children at home. That is the place where in

youth the character receives its first impress and is chiefly formed. If parents think they can safely turn off the government and discipline of their children on school teachers, they are greatly mistaken. If they do this, they are false to the trust committed to them by the Creator, and recreant to the welfare of the State and the country. "A child left to himself bringeth his mother to shame," is a truth inscribed on the page of inspiration, and illustrated in the experience of mankind. It is not difficult to determine by the conduct of children at School, whether they are properly managed at home. It is rare for a teacher to have difficulty with those who have been trained to subordination, to respectful behavior, and obedience under the paternal roof. And we think we may say in truth, that there is no one thing, that more seriously threatens danger to our republic, than the rearing up of a generation which from early life have been permitted to have their own way,—to set aside law and authority at their pleasure, and to make their own depraved wills the rule of their actions. He has not begun to form a correct view of education, who does not know, that the most important part relates to this matter.

Closing thus the labors assigned to us for the year by the appointment of our fellow citizens, we commend the educational interests of the youth of the town to your fostering care, and to the supervision of our successors in office.

JOEL MANN, Chairman.

TABLE NO. 1.

LOCAL NAME.	No. of District.	No. of families.	No. of inhabitants.	Amount of taxable property.	Amount expended for School.	No. of Scholars registered belonging to district.	Boys.	Girls.	From other districts.	Over 15 years of age.	Length of School in months.	No. who attended 3-4 of term.	Do. one half.	Average daily attendance.	Teachers' wages per month including board.	Wages exclusive of board.
1 Narragansett,	36	169	\$112,400	\$130,97	44	25	18	1	4	4	21	12	27			\$19
2 Tower Hill,			110,000	117,00	39	26	13		3	3	17	32	26			
3 Kingston,*			138,350		81	39	42	11	13	4						20 & 33
4 Union,	40	200	50,000	120,00	66	35	31		10	4	36	52	47		\$20	
5 Rocky Brook,	68	350	66,500	300,00	76	46	30	2	15	4	55	63	58	1-3	40	
6 Wakefield, } Grammar,			200,000	453,00	48	38	10	3	16	4	35	45	38		35	
7 Point Judith, } Primary,					40	21	19			4	28	11	37			20
8 Do.	20	150	85,000	92,37	33	21	12		6	4	15	8	20			20
9 Sugar Loaf Hill,	16	97	70,000		22	12	10	2	4	4						
10 Matoonoc, Summer Term.	24	133	52,000	160,70	44	23	21	1	2	4	16	20	18		12	20
11 Backside,	15	85	56,000	96,00	28	12	8	1	2	3	10	17	13		15	15
12 Perryville,	28	125	62,525	339,29	46	23	23	2	9	3	30	38	33		20	20
13 Green Hill,	25	154	50,000		39	29	10	1	9	4	36	29			16	16
14 Tuckertown,	25	102	25,000	80,00	21	15	6		5	4	15	18	17		20	20
15 Perkins,	25	90	50,000		23	14	9		4	4	18	22	18		20	20
16 Yawcoo,			34,000		25						20		19		18	18
17 Usquepaug,	30	131	52,000	181,00	32	15	17	1	8	4	13	29	23		15	21
18 Dugway,	16	69	15,000	67,91	16	11	5		1	2	17	25	22		33	19
19 Pier,			69,000		33	21	12	1	4	4						
20 Peacedale,			97,000		54	32	22									
21 Moorsfield,	24		45,000		24	14	10		2	2	13	16	14			12

\*This includes the Primary Department.

TABLE NO. 2.

Showing the number of scholars in particular studies.

Districts.	No. of scholars in alphabet.	No. in reading and spelling.	No. in Geography.	Classes in Geography.	No. in Grammar.	Classes in Grammar.	No. in Mental Arithmetic.	Classes in Do.	No. in Written Arithmetic.	Classes in Do.	No. in Penmanship.	No. in Algebra.	No. in Philosophy.	No. in Composition.	History of U. States.	Declamation.
1	0	41	11	3	0		8	3	17	2	25					
2	2	34	6	2	2		3	1	15	1	31					
3	0	82	53	5	32	3	60	5	29	3	64	10		39	27	14
4	1	43	41	4	12	1	15	2	35	2	49	2		20		12
5	8	45	25	5	20	2	40	6	40	3	40	5			3	
*6	0	42	15	3	17	2	12	2	20	3	30	3			7	
6			25	3	11	1	24	2	19	3	28			28		
7	3	15	6	3	6	2	9	3	17	3	21					
8		9	7		3		8		9		13					7
9			16	2	8		10	2	30	2	20	2	2			
10	5	15	12	2	1	1	10	1	7	1	16			7		
11	3	13	6	3	2	1	7	2	5	2	10			4		9
†12	1	46	24	3	16	2	15	2	26	2	39			18		12
13		31	19	3	6	1	1		18	2	21				1	
14	3	15	14	3	2	1	15	4	10	3	14					
15	2	17	14	2	3	1	10	1	11	3	19					6
16	2	25	6	2	6	2			13	2	14			9		8
17		28	14	4	9	2	12	2	10	2	22	5		9	9	
18	1	7	2	2	2	2	4	4	3	3	3					
19	2	25	16	4	3	2	9	3	16	2	17			9		
20																
21	3	17	12	3	4	1	11	2	7	2	15					

\*In Latin 3, General History 7.

†Physiology 3.



Table of amount apportioned and paid out

Districts.	Money divided equally.	Apportionment by average attendance.	Balance in Treasury June 6, 1852.	Total.	Paid to Dis- tricts.	Unexpended.
1	44 86	45 21		90 07	90 07	
2	44 86	39 73		84 59	84 59	
3	44 86	91 44		136 30	132	4 32
4	44 86	68 50	21 16	134 52	116	18 52
5	44 86	69 18		114 04	114 04	
6	44 86	101 72		146 58	146 58	
7	44 86	23 29		68 15	73 15	
8	44 86	24 66		69 52	64	5 52
9	44 86	71 24	5 30	121 40	105	16 40
10	44 86	22 60		67 46	48	14 46
11	44 86	17 18	39	63 06	63 06	
12	44 86	41 78	39	87 03	87 03	
13	44 86	34 25	3 13	82 24	82 24	
14	44 86	17 12	15 11	77 09	77 09	
15	44 86	19 18		64 04	64 04	
16	44 86	28 77	18 81	92 44	72 00	20 44
17	44 86	39 73		84 59	84 50	09
18	44 86	17 81		62 67	62 66	01
19	44 86	35 62		80 48	80 48	
20	44 86	95 90		140 76	140 76	
21	44 86	34 25	2 67	81 78	66 00	15 78

## GEOLOGICAL CABINET :

AN INTRODUCTION AND AID TO BOOKS.

*By Josiah Holbrook.*

## EXTRACTS.

The principal families of rocks, or geological formations, are the granite family, composed of three members, and forming all the highest mountains in the world ; the horn-blend, or trap family, consisting also of three or four members, widely scattered over the earth ; lime formations, very abundant, various, and useful ; magnesian or serpentine formations, containing highly valuable ores ; conglomerate rocks, or those formed from the fragments of broken down rocks ; carbon, or coal formations ; fossils, or organic remains, or rocks containing the remains of more than nine thousand animals, with those of numerous plants ; coral ranges, very extensive, and still increasing, by the labors of insects of the sea ; and volcanic rocks, composing very numerous islands, and some mountains, from ten to fifteen thousand feet high. All these vast ranges of rocky mountain masses, constituting the elements, the grandeur, and riches of our earth, beautifully and emphatically declare the sublime truth, that He who formed them has indeed and in truth *"weighed the mountains in scales, and the hills in a balance."*

Nos. 1 and 2.—QUARTZ is the only mineral found everywhere. It forms a considerable part of all the highest mountains in the world, is the principal element of soils, composes nearly all the pebbles upon shores and in banks of gravel and sand, is the only material essential in the manufacture of glass ; and, in some of its varieties, formed most or all the gems mentioned as set in the breastplate of Aaron, the high priest ; also, those mentioned as composing the streets of the New Jerusalem. Quartz also forms most of the precious stones used in all ages of the world, as personal ornaments, worn on fingers, breasts, &c., and hence furnishing, to a considerable extent, articles of commerce among nations.

It scratches most other minerals, and is hence one of the hardest. Its colors are white, red, brown, smoky, blue, green, yellow, and clouded, with various shades of different colors. The most common quartz crystal is a hexagonal or six-sided prism, ending in a pyramid, with the same number of sides. The names, determined by the colors, forms, &c., are milk quartz, smoky, gray, yellow, rose, limpid, jaspery, blue, red, and clouded quartz ; with numerous other varieties. The gems are amethyst, or purple quartz ; jasper, or red quartz ; cornelian, yellowish red ; agate, clouded, &c., &c.

No. 3.—BURSTONE is porous quartz, principally brought from France, and used for the stones of flour mills, and is preferable for that use to any other material yet discovered. Its great hardness and numerous pores give it the character of an aggregation of knives, admirably fitted for reducing wheat and other grains to flour.

No. 4.—FELSPAR resembles quartz, and is extensively combined with it, in rocks, mountains, soils, &c. When pulverized, or decomposed, it forms clay, as pulverized quartz does sand. The two, combined, are the principal and essential ingredients of all soils, and of course should be fully and familiarly understood by all farmers. Felspar is used for making China ware, or porcelain, as quartz is for glass. It is scratched by quartz, and breaks more in the form of lamina, or a smooth table surface, giving it the appearance of a collection of small steps. Its color is white, reddish white, flesh color, sometimes brown, and occasionally other colors. It is far less various, and less beautiful in its varieties, than quartz. When it has a glassy appearance, and is translucent, it is called adularia. Labrador felspar, found extensively in Essex county, N. Y., is opalescent, or has a play of colors, as it is exposed to the light in different attitudes.

No. 5.—MICA unites with quartz and felspar as granite to form the Himalaya Mountains, the Andes, Rocky Mountains, Alps, Pyrenees, Carpathian, Ural, and all the highest mountains in the world. It is also found in ledges and loose rocks, or bowlders, widely scattered over different countries. It is easily split into leaves of almost any imaginable thinness, exceedingly elastic, and semi-transparent, and is thus fitted for the doors of stoves and other purposes, as a substitute for glass. In some parts of Russia it is much used for the windows of houses, where it is known by the name of Muscovy glass. It is frequently called isinglass.

Nos. 6 and 7.—GRANITE is composed of quartz, felspar, and mica—the latter thrown about in every possible direction—rendering the rock *unstratified*, not slaty. It differs widely in the degree of fineness of the three ingredients composing it, the mica sometimes being in plates two feet or more in diameter; at other times in fine spangles, like scales, thickly scattered through the rock. The quartz or felspar also vary greatly in the size of the masses composing the granite.

Fine granite is best fitted for purposes of architecture, for which it is extensively used in many countries. In the U. States are many quarries, furnishing building materials for all our seaports, and many inland towns and villages.

No. 8.—GNEISS is slaty granite, rendered so by the uniform direction of the mica. It hence splits in slabs of large and

smooth surface, fitting it for sidewalks, floors, bridges, and many other purposes of economy and convenience. It is the prevailing rock on New York island, as it is in many parts of New England, and many other parts of the world. The color of gneiss depends of course, upon that of the materials composing it, especially the mica, which is sometimes black, giving a black or dark color to the gneiss. It is more commonly of a lightish grey, and sometimes silvery.

No. 9.—**MICA SLATE** resembles gneiss, but is composed of quartz and mica. Felspar, composing a part of granite and gneiss, is wanting in this rock. It frequently has an undulating surface, but is smooth. It splits readily, and is used for purposes similar to those of gneiss. Garnets are more abundant in this than any other rock; and this rock contains more of those than any other crystals.

No. 10.—**HORNBLEND** is black, green, or other dark colors. It is more tough than hard, and is an element of rocks much used in architecture, also forming some of the most beautiful scenery in the world.

No. 11.—**SIENITE** is commonly called granite, but differs from it in taking hornblend in place of mica. The Bunker Hill Monument, (Massachusetts,) Merchants' Exchange, Astor House, Rutgers Institute, and numerous other buildings in New York and other cities, are built of sienite, commonly called Quincy Granite. Cleopatra's Needle, Egypt, is sienite.

No. 12.—**BASALT**. The Giant's Causeway is composed of basaltic pillars, many of which are six-sided prisms, from six inches to a foot or two in diameter, in blocks about the same length, with one end rounded and the other hollowed, so as exactly to match, and are piled upon each other to the height of 200 feet or more. Rocks nearly resembling these, and piled upon each other in a similar manner, form the palisades on the Hudson, the two bluffs at New Haven, Mount Holyoke, and many other mountain masses in this and other countries. The same kind of rock is scattered over many countries, in the form of bowlders, and is frequently known by the name of ironstone. It is composed principally of hornblend or augite, which it resembles, and felspar, with a large portion of iron. Basalt, greenstone, and other rocks of the same family, are much used for building.

Nos. 13 and 14.—**LIME** formations are extensive, various, useful, and sometimes beautiful. They embrace common limestone, nearly all marbles, chalk, and many beautiful crystals. The older formations are in coarse grains, which give it the name of granular lime. The more recent is frequently finer or more compact, when it is called compact lime. It is frequently found in rhombic crystals, when it is called rhomb



spar. When these crystals are transparent they are called Iceland spar, and produce double refraction—giving one line or letter seen through it the appearance of two.

All these formations are the carbonate of lime, composed of lime and carbonic acid. When burnt, the acid is thrown from the lime, when it is reduced to quicklime, and fitted for various uses in building; also for manuring land, for which it is extensively used. White limestone and milk quartz are sometimes confounded; but they may be easily distinguished by the knife, as the former can be cut, and the latter not: and more certainly by an acid, as the former effervesces and the latter not.

No. 15.—GYP SUM is the sulphate of lime, and of course composed of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) and lime. In Italy and other countries, it appears in the form of alabaster, which receives a fine polish, and is translucent. When crystallized in transparent plates, it is called selenite (moonstone.) It sometimes appears in fine silky fibres, when it is called fibrous gypsum. Radiated gypsum is another beautiful variety of this mineral.

Gypsum is a powerful manure, and is much used for ornamental work in plastering rooms; also for busts and casts of various kinds.

No. 16.—SERPENTINE rocks form extensive barren ridges, but contain chrome ore, magnesia, asbestos, and other useful and curious deposits. It takes its name from its variety of colors like the serpent, though its prevailing color is green.—The prevailing rock at Hoboken and Staten Island is serpentine, which extends, with frequent interruptions, through New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Maryland, into Virginia. It abounds in various parts of the world.

No. 17.—TALC, like serpentine, contains magnesia. It is sometimes known by the name of French chalk. It has a greasy feel, and is easily cut with a knife, or scratched by the finger nail.

No. 18.—SOAPSTONE is composed of talc, minutely combined with quartz. It is easily cut with an axe or saw, turned in a lathe, smoothed with a plain, and thus changed into any form desired for economy or convenience. It is less abundant than serpentine, but is frequently found with it.

No. 19.—SANDSTONE is composed of grains of sand or quartz cemented into rocks, commonly by iron. It abounds in many countries, and is much used for buildings, and is the material for grindstones, whetstones, and other similar articles.

No. 20.—PUDDINGSTONE is a rock formed of pebbles, and cemented by iron. The pebbles are commonly quartz, round-

ed by a long course of friction. When the pebbles are limestone, not rounded, the rock is called breccia.

Nos. 21 and 22.—**COAL.** Mineral coal is divided into two great families—bituminous and anthracite. The former contains hydrogen, which produces ready ignition, a bright blaze, smoke, smell, tar and coke. Anthracite is composed principally of carbon, which is ignited less readily, produces little blaze, smoke, or smell, no tar or coke, but a higher heat, and is more durable. Bituminous coal is found in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Missouri, Tennessee, Alabama, and other States. Nearly all the anthracite used comes from Pennsylvania.—Both are found in various parts of the other continent.

No. 23.—**FOSSILS.** More than 9,000 different kinds of animals are changed into stone, or petrified; the greater portion of the species now extinct, or unknown in a living state. Some animals thus petrified were larger than elephants; others are microscopic, or too small to be seen by the eye alone. Microscopic animals thus fossilized, and now forming chalk, flint, marl, &c., were once alive and possessed of the powers of action and enjoyment. One fossil, called the Lily Encrinure, or stone lily, is found to contain more than 100,000 bones or joints. On some portions of the Erie canal, rocks composed of different kinds of Encrinures are so abundant as to be used for the walls of locks. They receive a fine polish, and make a beautiful marble.

Six hundred different kinds of fossil, or petrified plants, have been discovered. In some cases, large trees, and even forests, are changed into stone. Many kinds of plants, especially ferns, are found in slate and other rocks about coal mines.

No. 24.—**CORAL.** Myriads of insects have been at work for thousands of years, in forming rocks and islands in many parts of the world. They have built from the depths of the sea large masses and ranges of rocks, many thousand miles in extent. Their work is generally in a circular form, frequently surrounding islands. They leave openings sufficient for ships to enter, and space enough between their work and the islands for a safe harbor to ships when entered. The rock thus formed is called coral; the ranges encircling islands, coral reefs; and the insects engaged in the work, coral insects; of which numerous kinds are known, but are all small.

No. 25.—**LAVA.** A volcano is a burning mountain. More than three hundred have been discovered upon the earth. Some of them are constantly throwing out fire, smoke, ashes and melted rock; others burn for a time, and then cease, or perhaps break out in a new place. Some of these volcanoes have thrown masses of melted matter, which has passed off

in streams to the surrounding country, covering a surface larger than some of our States. The matter thus thrown from volcanoes is called *lava*; and the hole or opening from which it is thrown, is called a crater. The highest volcano is in the Andes mountains, more than 17,000 feet high, which sometimes throws out matter 6,000 feet above its summit. In some cases, the quantity of matter thrown from a volcano is greater than the whole mass of the mountain from which it is thrown. In 1783, two streams of lava flowed from a volcano in Iceland, one fifty miles long and twelve broad, and the other forty miles by seven—averaging one hundred feet in thickness, destroying twenty villages, and nine thousand inhabitants. Most of the islands in the Pacific ocean, and many in other parts of the world, are volcanoes. Some islands have risen from the midst of the sea in modern times, by the power of volcanoes.

As a "*First Lesson*" for children, the "GEOLOGICAL CABINET" here described is probably the best that can be provided. It is certainly fitted both to interest and instruct young minds, before they can comprehend any book which is or can be prepared for them.

As the elements of the earth are also the elements of soils, a knowledge of them is especially important for farmers; and hence ought to be learnt by every farmer's sons, and daughters too. The Geological Cabinet is, of course, peculiarly appropriate for country schools; not less so for families. It becomes doubly important in the country, from the ease of increasing it by collections made by children, not only for their schools and families directly, but for exchanging with other schools and families in other places and countries. Thus "*National Interchanges*" of the most enlightened *pacific* character, may be established among all sections and classes of the human family—a tendency to a "UNIVERSAL BROTHERHOOD" on earth.

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## INFLUENCE OF EDUCATION UPON GENERAL MORALITY.

From Alison's History of Europe, vol. 1, lately published.

"Knowledge," says Lord Bacon, "is *Power*." He has not said it is either wisdom or virtue. In this respect a capital mistake has been committed both by the speculative and active part of mankind of late years; and what is very remarkable, by the religious teachers, whose principles should have led them most to distrust the efficacy of intellectual cultivation in arresting the corruption of mankind. They

forgot that it was eating of the fruit of the tree of knowledge which expelled our first parents from Paradise—that the precept of our Savior was to preach the gospel to all nations not to educate all nations. Experience has now abundantly verified the melancholy truth so often enforced in Scripture, so constantly forgotten by mankind, that intellectual cultivation has no effect in arresting the sources of evil in the human heart; that it alters the direction of crimes, but does not alter its amount. The poet has said—

“Didicisse fideliter artes,  
Emollit mores, nec sinit esse feros.”

And that is undoubtedly true. But observe, he has not said “nec sinit esse *pravos*.” Education and civilization, generally diffused, have a powerful effect in softening the savage passions of the human breast, and checking the crimes of violence which originate in their indulgence; but they tend rather to increase than diminish those of fraud and gain, because they add strength to the desire, by multiplying the pleasures which can be attained only by the acquisition of property. Then is indeed experienced the truth of the saying of the wise man, that “the love of money is the root of all evil.”

This is a melancholy truth: so melancholy, indeed, that it is far from being generally admitted even by the best informed persons; and it is so mortifying to the pride of human intellect, that it is probably the last one which will be generally admitted by mankind. Nevertheless, there is none which is supported by a more wide-spread and unvarying mass of proofs, or which, when rightly considered, might more naturally be anticipated from the structure of the human mind. The utmost efforts have, for a quarter of a century, been made in various countries to extend the blessing of education to the laboring classes; but not only has no diminution in consequence been perceptible in the amount of crime and the turbulence of mankind, but the effect has been just the reverse; they have both signally and alarmingly increased. Education has been made a matter of state policy in Prussia, and every child is, by the compulsion of government, sent to school; but so far has this universal spread of instruction been from eradicating the seeds of evil, that serious crime is *fourteen times* as prevalent in proportion to the population in Prussia, as it is in France, where about two-thirds of the whole inhabitants can neither read



nor write.\* In France itself, it has been ascertained, from the returns collected in the "Statistique Morale de la France," of commitments for crimes tried at the assizes, and the number of children at school, that the amount of crime in all the eighty-three Departments is, without one single exception, in proportion to the amount of instruction received; and accordingly, in the very curious and interesting tables constructed by M. Guerry, the lightest Departments in the map showing the amount of education, are the darkest in that showing the amount of crime.† By far the greater proportion of the ladies of pleasure in Paris come from the districts to the north of the Loire, the most highly educated in France. In Scotland, the educated criminals are to the uneducated as 4 1-2 to 1; in England, as 2 to 1 nearly; in Ireland they are about equal.‡ In America, the educated criminals are in most of the States of the Union three times the uneducated, and some double only; in all greatly superior in number.§ These facts to all persons capable of yielding assent to evidence in opposition to prejudice, completely settle the question; but the conclusion to which they lead is so adverse to general opinion, that probably more than one generation must descend to their graves before they are generally admitted.

And yet, although the pride of intellect is so reluctant to admit this all important truth, there is none which in reality is so entirely conformable to the known dispositions of the human mind, or which is so frequently and loudly announced in Scripture. That the heart is "deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked," we know from the very highest authority; and probably there is no man whose experience of himself, as well as others, will not confirm the truth of the saying. But education has no tendency to weaken the influence of these secret tempters which every

\*In France and Prussia there were respectively in 1826,

	Prussia.	France.
Crimes against the person - - - -	1 in 34, 122	1 in 32, 411
Do property - - - -	1 in 597	1 in 9, 392
On the whole - - - -	1 in 597	1 in 7, 285

See ALISON'S *Essays*, i. 558.

\* See "Statistique Morale de la France" par M. Guerry, Paris, 1834—a most interesting work, the results of which are well abridged in Bulwer's "France," vol. i. p. 173-178.

† 1841—	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
Uneducated - - - -	9 220	696	8,735
Educated - - - -	18 111	2,834	7,152

—PORTER'S *Progress of the Nation*, and *Parliamentary Tables*.

§ See Buckingham's "Travels," vol. i. pp. 472, 515.

one finds in his own bosom ; on the contrary, it has often a tendency to increase their power, by inflaming the imagination with pictures of enjoyment, which is not to be attained, at least in any short-hand method, but by crime or injustice. Discontent with our present lot is too often the result of highly-wrought, and often exaggerated pictures of the lot of others ; thence the experienced and increasing difficulty of maintaining government, restraining turbulence, and preserving property from spoliation in the states and cities where instruction is most generally diffused. The common idea, that education, by rendering the pleasures of intellect accessible to the multitude, will provide an antidote and counterpoise to the seductions of sense, though plausible, is entirely fallacious. The power of intellect—the capacity of feeling its enjoyments—is given to a small fraction only of the human race : the vast majority of men in every rank, are, and ever will be, hewers of wood and drawers of water. Physical excitement, animal pleasure, the thirst for gain, to be able to enjoy them, constitute the active principles of nine-tenths of mankind, in all ages and ranks of life. Increase their material well being, multiply their means of obtaining these enjoyments, render them, so far as possible, easy and comfortable in their circumstances, and you make a mighty step in adding to the sum of human felicity, because you open avenues to it from which none are excluded. Augment to any conceivable extent their means of instruction ; establish schools in every street, libraries in every village, and you do infinite things, indeed, for the thinking few, but little for the unthinking many.

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NEW YORK TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This Institution the object of which is by the mutual intercourse of its members and the discussion of educational topics, both to elevate the dignity of the profession, and to propose the most efficient means for the advancement of general education, and which is composed of Ward, Police and Private School Teachers held its last regular monthly meeting at Trustees' Hall, corner of Grand and Elm sts., on Saturday evening last. The attendance was unusually large, and the proceedings exceedingly enthusiastic. The principal business was the discussion of the draft of a law for an Act of Incorporation, to be presented to the Legislature of this State, by the passage of which it is confidently believed, that well qualified Teachers will be placed on a par with the members of the other

learned professions. In consequence of its effect in exciting the ambition of Teachers, the intellectual improvement of the rising generation will be proportionably augmented.

Why may not a R. I. Teachers' Association be formed. The result would undoubtedly be as favorable as in New York. Our teachers do not, as a general rule, take the stand in society to which they are entitled. While the minister, doctor and lawyer rank as professional men, the man who gives the early training in education, fitting them for future elevation above the majority of their fellow beings, is known only as the school master, who gets knowledge into the heads of his pupils in the best way he can. This is the too common view; but I was pleased at the meeting of the R. I. Institute in its early days, to hear a clergyman express it as his opinion that in all that regards the advancement of our race in virtue and usefulness he did not hesitate to place the schoolmaster who faithfully performed all his duties, upon the same level, as a member of society, with the religious teacher. If schoolmasters would claim more, they would receive more. Let them in other States follow the example of the N. Y. teachers, and a better state of matters would exist.

T.

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For the Rhode Island Educational Magazine.

### GOOD MANNERS.

The November number of this Magazine contains a notice of an article in the October number on "Manners in Public Schools." The writer of that communication is glad that this attention has been given to the subject; but regrets that the motives expressed in his article do not seem to have been fully understood. Being aware of the very objection stated by the writer from Portsmouth, as to the want of manners in too many teachers, I obviated the difficulty, by suggesting that a book on good manners should be put into every school room, from which the teacher should read a paragraph every day, and explain it to his pupils. However ignorant such teacher might be upon the subject, and therefore incapable of exemplifying it in his own conduct, yet it was supposed that no one teaching a school can be so incapable of understanding the meaning of a paragraph on manners, as not to be able to make any pupil understand it likewise. The benefit of this daily practice will not be confined to the scholars,

but will extend its fruits to the teacher. The former State Superintendent sent for the book mentioned by me,—“The Manual of Manners;” but his resignation from ill health, prevented its introduction into every District School in the State, and the whole lot was returned. At my suggestion, Mr. Whitney, the bookseller, has sent for some copies, which may be examined by those who feel sufficient interest in this heretofore neglected question. If examining committees would take pains to inform themselves upon this subject by looking through this manual, and by asking the candidate some questions from the book, a good result might be obtained; and the knowledge gradually diffused throughout the State, that manners would be one of the essential requisites for a certificate, would induce attention to their details, much to the advantage of the applicants and to those brought into contact with them. The suggestion that “the Normal School of Providence may be made to contribute greatly to this end,” is one that I hope will be carried out; and also that all future meetings of Institutes will make manners a prominent topic.

T.

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#### PARABLE AGAINST PERSECUTION.

“When Abraham sat at his tent door, according to his custom, waiting to entertain strangers, he espied an old man stooping and leaning on his staff, weary with age and travail, coming towards him, who was a hundred years of age. He received him kindly, washed his feet, provided supper, caused him to sit down; but observing that the old man eat and prayed not, nor begged for a blessing on his meat, he asked him why he did not worship the God of Heaven. The old man told him that he worshipped the fire only, and acknowledged no other God. At which answer Abraham grew so zealously angry, that he thrust the old man out of his tent and exposed him to all the evils of the night and an unguarded condition. When the old man was gone, God called Abraham, and asked him where the stranger was? He replied, I thrust him away because he did not worship thee. God answered him, I have suffered him these hundred years, although he dishonored me; and couldst thou not endure him one night?”

This parable is found at the conclusion of Bishop Jeremy Taylor's *Liberty of Prophecy*, a work written in defence of religious



freedom, and published in 1647. Bishop Taylor says it was found in Jewish books, but Hallam says it is probably of Arabian origin. It was not in the first editions of the Liberty of Propheying, and the book from which Taylor is supposed to have borrowed it was not published until 1651. Franklin sent the same parable, with some variations to make it resemble the style of scripture, to Lord Kaimes, and it was published by the latter in his "Sketches of the History of Man." It was for a long time attributed to Franklin, and published among his works as his. See Hallam's Literature of Europe, vol. 3, ch. 2. § 61, (Harper's ed. vol. 2, page 52). Cross' Selections from Edinburgh Review 3, 277, note.

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### NORMAL SCHOOL.

We had the pleasure of being present at the late examination of the Normal School, in Providence. The pupils acquitted themselves in a manner to reflect great credit on themselves and their instructors. Opportunities for better instruction they could not have had anywhere. Messrs. Russell, Greene, Colburn and Guyot have long been among the most distinguished in their several departments.

While the number of young ladies in attendance was large, we were sorry to see so few young gentlemen among the pupils. We hope this will not be the case another winter. There are very few places in our country where teachers have it in their power to obtain such instruction from so well qualified instructors, and we hope that at their next term, which will commence in Providence next autumn, the school will be full.

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### KINGSTON ACADEMY.

This institution which formerly sustained a high standing in our State as a school for the classics and higher branches of English education, has lately been reorganized. A new and convenient building is now erecting by private subscription, and will probably be opened for use in the fall, under competent instructors.

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### COUNTY INSPECTORS.

The following gentlemen have been appointed County Inspectors for the ensuing school year, viz :

Providence County—Rev. John Boyden, Jr., of Woonsocket ; Rev. O. F. Otis, of Chepachet ; John H. Willard, of Pawtucket ; and John B. Tallman, of Central Falls.

Bristol County—Rev. Thomas Shepperd, of Bristol.

Newport County—Rev. Charles T. Brooks, of Newport.

From the Evening Post.

### THE SOULS OF THE CHILDREN.

"Who bids for the little children—

Body and soul and brain ;

Who bids for the little children—

Young and without a stain ?

Will no one bid," said England,

"For their souls so pure and white,

And fit for all good and evil,

The world on their page may write ?"

"We bid," said Pest and Famine,

"We bid for life and limb ;

Fever and pain and squalor

Their bright young eyes shall dim.

When the children grow too many,

We'll nurse them as our own,

And hide them in secret places,

Where none may hear them moan.

"I bid," said Beggary, howling,

"I'll buy them one and all,

I'll teach them a thousand lessons—

To lie, to skulk, to crawl ;

They shall sleep in my lair like maggots,

They shall rot in the fair sunshine ;

And if they serve my purpose,

I hope they'll answer thine."

"And I'll bid higher and higher,"

Said Crime, with wolfish grin,

"For I love to lead the children,

Through the pleasant paths of sin.

They shall swarm in the streets to pilfer,

They shall plague the broad highway,

Till they grow too old for pity,

And ripe for the law to slay.

"Prison and hulk and gallows

Are many in the land,

'Twere folly not to use them,

So proudly as they stand.

Give me the little children,

I'll take them as they're born ;

And I'll feed their evil passions

With misery and scorn.

"Give me the little children,

Ye good, ye rich, ye wise,

And let the busy world spin round

While ye shut your idle eyes ;  
 And you judges shall have work,  
 And you lawyers wag the tongue ;  
 And the jailors and policemen  
 Shall be fathers to the young."

"O, shame !" said true Religion,  
 "Oh, shame, that this should be !  
 I'll take the little children—  
 I'll take them all to me.  
 I'll raise them up with kindness  
 From the mire in which they've trod ;  
 I'll teach them words of blessing,  
 I'll lead them up to God."

"You're *not* the true religion,"  
 Said a Sect with flashing eyes ;  
 "Nor thou," said another scowling—  
 "Thou'rt heresy and lies."  
 "You shall not have the children,"  
 Said a third, with a shout and yell ;  
 "You're antichrist and bigot—  
 You'd train them up for hell."

And England, sorely puzzled  
 To see such battle strong,  
 Exclaimed with voice of pity—  
 "Oh, friends, you do me wrong !  
 Oh, cease your bitter wrangling,  
 For, till you all agree,  
 I fear the little children  
 Will plague both you and me."

But all refused to listen ;—  
 Quoth they—"We bide our time ;"  
 And the bidders seized the children—  
 Beggary, Filth, and Crime :  
 And the prisons teemed with victims,  
 And the gallows rocked on high,  
 And the thick abomination  
 Spread reeking to the sky.

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### SCHOOL COMMISSIONER.

At the May session of the General Assembly, A. D. 1853, at Newport, Elisha R. Potter, of South Kingstown, was nominated by the Governor and confirmed by the Senate, as Commissioner of Public Schools for the year ensuing.

SCHOOL LAW.  
REVOKING AN ELECTION.

PROVIDENCE, May 21, 1853.

*Dear Sir :*

From the best consideration I have been able to give to the subject, I am of opinion that a district having once legally made an election of any of the officers required by law to be elected, would have no right to rescind it.

The case would be different, however, with persons who were merely appointed by the district as a committee for some particular purpose. Over such cases the district would have complete control and might remove such agents at pleasure,

A trustee once elected and accepting, could only be removed for good cause, and after notice and a hearing. The contrary doctrine would lead to continual contests and confusion.

Very respectfully yours, &c.,

E. R. P.

Mr. \*\*\*\*.

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M. Ampere, a French writer who has lately been writing on the subject of the United States, speaking of the American habit of boasting, and claiming the credit of everything, says:—"I cannot help thinking, that it is painful to the inhabitants of the United States not to be able to pretend that an American discovered America. On the whole, this predilection for their country has nothing aggressive or offensive in it. It rather inspires me with esteem for the American people."

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TERRITORY OF WASHINGTON.

By act of Congress, March 2d, 1853, a new territory was established, to be called the Territory of Washington. It includes "all that portion of Oregon territory lying and being South of the forty-ninth degree of North latitude, and North those middle of the main channel of Columbia river from its mouth to where the forty-sixth degree of North latitude crosses said river near Fort Wallawalla, thence with said forty-sixth degree of North latitude to the summit of the Rocky Mountains."



REPORT OF THE EXAMINING COMMITTEE OF THE  
NORMAL SCHOOL.

The undersigned having been requested to act as an Examining Committee of the Rhode Island Normal School, lately in operation in this city, and having in this capacity visited it and attended its closing examination, present to its patrons and friends the following report:—

The school was commenced at the instance, and through the exertions of Professor S. S. Greene, Superintendent of Public Schools in this city, and was originally designed simply to meet the wants, especially of young ladies and others, who were preparing to be teachers, but who yet could not join the class under the instruction of Prof. Greene, in the Normal Department of Brown University. For the accommodation of such persons—many of whom had already been employed as teachers—a class was first formed in the winter of 1851-2, which met in the hall of the High School, and continued for nearly eight months, under the instruction of Mr. Greene alone. In the autumn of 1852, several gentlemen, friends of education, in this city, contributed a sum sufficient for defraying the expenses of a room centrally situated and providing fixtures suitable for the accommodation of a Normal School, which should be continued through the winter, and embrace several different departments of instruction for the benefit of any persons who at a moderate charge might desire to attend it.—Through the liberality of those gentlemen, the hall of the Second Universalist Chapel in Broad street, was hired for the purpose, and the school was opened on the first day of November last, and continued to the first day of April, under the direction of Professor Greene, assisted by Professor William Russell, Mr. Dana P. Colburn and Mr. Arthur Sumner, all of them instructors of established reputation in their respective departments. The tuition for six months was fixed at fifteen dollars, a sum deemed barely sufficient to meet only the cost of instruction, in sessions of four and a half hours for five days of the week. The number of pupils who attended the school, was in all eighty-five, of whom eight were males; and the average number during six months was about seventy-five.

The several departments of instruction embraced in the school, were those of English Language, Geography, Political and Physical, Arithmetic, Elocution and Reading, in all of which, the instruction was designed to be strictly normal in its character. It supposed the pupils to be already, to a consider-

able extent, acquainted with the outlines of their several studies, and was intended to drill them in the methods of instruction, or, in other words, to teach them how to teach. For this purpose, in addition to the exercises of the several instructors, each scholar was daily practiced in the work of elementary teaching, the entire school being made for the time, a class of elementary learners. In this respect it is believed that the school maintained a higher character than usually belongs to similar institutions; for its pupils, having already completed their preparatory education, were here enabled to confine their attention exclusively to the work of learning how to teach to others what they had acquired for themselves.

From the inspection which the undersigned were able to give to the school, and especially from the closing examination, they have formed a most favorable opinion of its usefulness and efficiency. The instructors are persons of a high order of ability and skill. They manifested a most commendable fidelity and zeal in the prosecution of their labors, and the school in all its branches, has accomplished, in the judgment of the committee, so far as was practicable in a single season, the highly useful ends which its patrons and managers had in view. It has contributed towards the higher preparation of those who attended it, for the work of teaching children, a work which they have now studied as a science and have learned to practice as a profession. Even from this single experiment, restricted as it has been, the committee anticipate most beneficial results to the general interests of elementary instruction in our Public Schools. The methods of meeting the difficulties which childhood encounters in its acquisition of knowledge, have been explained, the standard of knowledge, and of skill required for this kind of instruction has been elevated among those who attended the school, and they have acquired a confidence in the principles which they are to employ, that will render them more efficient instructors whenever they may attempt to teach.

In the opinion of the committee, a school like this, ought to be permanently established for the benefit of those who design to become teachers in the schools—whether public or private—of this State. Whether such an institution might be most advantageously supported by legislative endowment or by private liberality, or in part by both, are questions which they leave for others to decide. They however, cannot refrain expressing their high sense of its importance to our system of education and their earnest hope, that should it be opened again in the ensuing autumn, it will be largely attended by those

who are preparing to be teachers of the young in all the towns of Rhode Island.

PHILIP ALLEN,  
ELISHA R. POTTER,  
A. C. BARSTOW,  
RICHMOND BROWNELL,  
WILLIAM GAMMELL,  
WM. J. BREED,  
S. A. ARNOLD,  
A. H. DUMONT,  
JOHN BOYDEN, JR.

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DIED.—In Haddam, Conn., Feb. 9, 1853, while on a journey to Middletown, Rev. Oliver Brown, pastor of the Congregational Society at Grass Hill, Lyme, Conn., aged 76.

We could not suffer the decease of a man like Mr. Brown to pass with merely the customary newspaper announcement of his decease. Mr. Brown was from Charlestown, Mass., graduated at Harvard College, Cambridge, was ordained at Newton Oct. 20, 1819, installed pastor of the congregational church at Kingston, R. I., Dec. 19, 1821, where he remained until June, 1845, when, in consequence of some of those church troubles which render the life of the pastor in modern times so undesirable (except when the salary is *very large*) he removed to Lyme.

Mr. Brown came to Kingston about 1818-9. The congregational church in the neighborhood was very feeble. The church was re-gathered, a new building erected, and from that time has continued to prosper. But it was of his services to the cause of education that we intended to speak chiefly. The schools in the country were of a very inferior character, and those gentlemen who wished to give their children a good education, were obliged to send them abroad for instruction. In order to aid in supporting himself, his congregation being weak, Mr. Brown established, and for many years kept himself a classical school. With the aid of the late Elisha R. Potter and others, the Kingston Academy was established, and for many years under the charge of Mr. Brown and his successors, maintained a high standing; and many young men from this and other states, received here a portion of their early education. His large collection of books was open to all the young lovers of learning, and in every way he exerted himself to improve the moral and intellectual condition of the neighborhood. He lived economically upon a small salary. He was meek and prudent, and without prudence he could not have succeeded; yet he was firm and resolute in all matters of duty. He was not one of those (so common now) who are continually sounding their own praises: his works praise him. Noiselessly, but steadily and earnestly, he continued on his way, devoting his best cares to his church and the school. Much of the improvement in our present schools is to be traced directly or indirectly to his exertions. He sowed the seed; we reap the harvest.

Indebted to him not merely for instruction, but for friendly advice and encouragement in the studies of early youth, we pay this small tribute to his memory.

KINGSTON, R. I., May, 1853.

## NOTICES OF BOOKS.

**SPALDING'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.**—A concise history of English literature from the earliest period down to and including notices of distinguished living authors, illustrated by extracts from their works, designed to exhibit their peculiarities of style, &c. It contains also a brief history of the English language and specimens to show the changes it has undergone at different times. 1 vol. 12mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

**ARNOLD'S HISTORY OF ROME.** 1 vol. 8vo.

**ARNOLD'S LATER ROMAN COMMONWEALTH.**—1 vol. 8vo. These works are by the distinguished Dr. Thomas Arnold, so long the principal of the Rugby Grammar School in England. They have obtained a very high reputation and those wishing to make a study of Roman History would do well to obtain them. D. Appleton & Co.

**ELEMENTS OF AGRICULTURE,** for Schools, translated from the French of Benz by F. G. Skinner. New York: C. M. Saxton.

**BLAKE'S AGRICULTURAL READER.**

We have no notion of undertaking to teach agriculture scientifically, at least not until the agricultural chemists have settled something in regard to their science. At present it is nearly all theory, nothing ascertained with certainty. These works, however, contain a great deal of useful information in plain and easy language, and might be used in our schools with advantage.

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### CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

He that spareth his rod, hateth his son; but he that loveth him, chasteneth him betimes.

The rod and reproof give wisdom; but a child left to himself, bringeth his mother to shame.

Correct thy son and he shall give thee rest.—*King Solomon.*

He that loveth his son, causeth him often to feel the rod that he may have joy of him in the end.—*Eccles.*

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☞ The MAGAZINE is sent gratis to the Clerk of every School District, and Chairman and Clerk of every School Committee. It offers, therefore, a good circulation for advertisements.

If any of the above named officers do not receive the Magazine, we should be glad to be informed of it.

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# RHODE ISLAND EDUCATIONAL MAGAZINE.

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VOL. II. PROVIDENCE, JUNE AND JULY, 1853. NOS. 6 & 7.

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## DECISIONS ON THE SCHOOL LAW.

STATE OF RHODE ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,

*Providence, January 8th, 1853.*

Appeal of Mowry Randall from certian votes of the School Committee of the town of North Providence, Oct. 16, 1852, by which the bills of Anson H. Cole for keeping school in District No. 3, amounting to \$122 50 ; Miss Hannah T. Smith's, for \$63 ; Miss Abby W. Thurber, for \$31 50, were rejected.

After several adjournments the case was heard at the office of the Commissioner of Public Schools, Dec. 18, 1852, the Committee having been notified, and Messrs. Sisson, chairman, and Willard of the Committee being present.

A part of the facts necessary to understand the case are stated in a former decision made March 23, 1852, and published in the Rhode Island Educational Magazine, page 220 for 1853.

Mr. Cole had a certificate, general in its terms, and after the former decision continued to keep school in the same house, viz: the new or primary school house.

The Committee contend that the certificate of Cole, general in its terms, was by their practice limited to a Grammar School, and that this practice was made known to the Trustees by the sub-committee's letter of Jan. 2, 1852, if they had not known it before.

On consideration I adhere to the decision formerly made upon this point, that although the Committee have the power to limit their

certificates to particular schools, yet if they see fit to give a certificate of general qualification, it must be construed according to its plain purport, and to allow the written certificate to be contradicted or varied by any understanding not expressed on the face of the certificate itself, would be a dangerous practice, leading to continual misunderstanding and litigation.

But it is further contended that even if the certificate be a general one, and would allow Cole to keep in any Grammar or Primary School, that his certificate was annulled by the sub-committee's letter of January 2, 1852, and that if the sub-committee had not the power to annul it, the subsequent recognition of it by the Committee annulled it.

In the former case, it was decided that the sub-committee had no authority to annul the certificate.

It is contended that the true grammatical construction of Sec. 14 of the School Law, authorizes the Committee to delegate to a sub-committee the power of annulling certificates.

The power of annulling certificates is an important one. It gives the Committee a control over the teacher—it authorizes them to pronounce a judgment against him for unfitness or misconduct, which may have the effect of ruining him in his profession, and of injuring materially his prospects for general success in life. If the construction was doubtful these considerations would incline me to lean against the right claimed for the Committee to delegate this power. But the construction appears to me to be plainly, that the Committee have not the right to delegate.

And if the sub-committee had not the power to annul the certificate, the subsequent recognition of it by the Committee would not render it valid.

In this view, it is not necessary to decide whether if the sub-committee had the power claimed, their letter of January 2, 1852, would have been sufficient to annul the teachers' certificates.

Nor is it necessary to decide concerning Cole's former bill, as that has been settled since the appeal, and on the reconsideration which the Committee ask, I cannot see any reason to change the opinions as to the law formerly expressed.

It being admitted that Miss Smith kept school in the house to which her certificate limited her, and her bill being rejected only on

the ground that her certificate had been annulled at the same time and in the same manner as Mr. Cole's, this question is settled by the remarks already made.

As it is stated by the Committee that Miss Thurber's bill was postponed, not rejected, and that the certified copy presented from the records is in that instance incorrect (by mistake, however, not by design) no decision is made in relation to her bill at present.

The decision of the School Committee of the town of North Providence respecting the aforesaid bills of Cole and Miss Smith, is hereby reversed and said bills allowed; and the said Committee are requested to carry the decision hereby made into effect, and to draw an order upon the Town Treasurer of said town in favor of Anson H. Cole for the sum of one hundred and twenty-two dollars and fifty cents, and an order in favor of Miss Hannah T. Smith for the sum of sixty-three dollars, or in case the present or former Trustees have paid either of said bills, then make the order for such bill in favor of the person so paying it.

E. R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools,

*To the School Committee of the town of North Providence.*

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### CASE OF APPEAL.

OF MOWRY RANDALL FROM A DECISION OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE OF NORTH PROVIDENCE.

Mowry Randall, of North Providence, former Trustee of School District No. 3, appeals from a vote of the School Committee of said town, passed Jan. 15, 1853, rejecting the account of Miss Abby Thurber, amounting to \$31 50, for keeping school in District No. 3, of said town.

The School Committee was duly notified, and after two postponements the case was heard before the Commissioner of Public Schools at the State House in Providence, on the 19th March, 1853, the appellant and Messrs. Joseph T. Sisson, J. H. Willard and J. Mowry, of the Committee, being present.

It appears that Miss Thurber had a certificate, general in its form, and not limited to any particular school: that (there being more than one school house in the district) she was notified by a sub-committee appointed by the School Committee, that her cer-

tificate was annulled as soon as she began to keep in the old school-house: and that she did keep in said old school house.

The sub-committee was appointed by the following vote passed Oct. 18, 1852: "Voted that in the absence of the board the Chairman and the Secretary be severally authorized to order bills, approve taxes, school regulations &c, for the several school districts, and transact all other business legally transferable into their hands," a copy of which vote is produced, certified by J. H. Willard, Clerk of said Committee.

Having decided in a case between the same parties, that the committee had no right to delegate the power to annul a certificate to a sub-committee, and that a recognition of it by the Committee would not give validity to it, and having on request reconsidered the arguments, I see no reason for changing those opinions.

But on the hearing in this case a new point is made, viz: that the sub-committee who annulled the certificate was a Superintendent of Schools, with all the powers of the Committee under Sec. 7 of the School Law, and of course had full power to annul the certificate.

Sec. 7 of the School Law is as follows: "Any town may appoint or authorize its School Committee to appoint a Superintendent of the schools of the town, to perform, under the advice and direction of the Committee, such duties and exercise such powers as the Committee may assign to him," &c., &c.

It appears that the town in Town Meeting, June 3, 1850, "voted that the School Committee be authorized to appoint an agent to visit the schools, at a compensation not exceeding one hundred dollars, to be paid from the Public School money," a copy of which is certified by the Town Clerk.

There is no evidence on record of the appointment of any agent or superintendent by the Committee, but the certificates of the Chairman (Joseph T. Sisson), and Clerk (John H. Willard), are offered to prove that on the 18th Oct. 1851, (the same day on which the vote before recited delegating power to the Chairman and Clerk was passed) the following vote, or a vote in substance as follows, was also passed: "Voted that John H. Willard be Superintendent of the Public Schools of the town for the current year, with the privilege to employ, if necessary, suitable persons as substitutes, such servicest



be compensated from the residue of the appropriation of \$100 voted last year by the town for such purpose."

Evidence to correct or supply omissions in the records of school officers I think may properly be admitted. In the case of Clerks of Districts it seems absolutely necessary, as they are often unacquainted with the forms of doing business. In the case of a School Committee, however, the presumption is stronger that they are competent men, and will be careful to see that their record is well kept. Yet even here great mischief might result from excluding all evidence other than the record. But it should be received with great caution, as after any considerable length of time, parties might not recollect it alike.

That a vote not recorded was passed at the meeting, is confirmed by the printed report of the Committee for that year, in which Mr. Willard is spoken of as having been appointed Agent at the preceding October meeting, with power to provide substitutes. The term used throughout the report however is *Agent* and not Superintendent.

On this state of facts the *first* question is, did the vote of the town contemplate or authorize the Committee to appoint a Superintendent, such as is provided for by Sec. 7 of the law? It seems plain to me that it did not, but that it meant only to provide for the visiting the schools, an important duty but often neglected. The law authorizing the appointment of a Superintendent was not passed until after this vote of the town.

As the Committee must derive their authority from a vote of the town, it becomes unnecessary to notice further the proceedings of the Committee. It may be proper however to observe, that the sub-committee who annulled the certificate did not style himself Superintendent, and that if he actually had been Superintendent his proceedings would not have needed any confirmation by the Committee.

A considerable part of the difficulty appears to have arisen from mistake of the law, from not distinguishing between an Agent to visit schools and a Superintendent. If it was the intention of the town to authorize the Committee to appoint a Superintendent, and to delegate to him their whole powers, their vote should plainly say so.

The decision of said Committee, rejecting said bill, is therefore reversed, and said bill allowed, and said Committee are requested to carry this decision into effect, and to draw an order on the Town Treasurer of said town in favor of Miss Abby Thurber, for the sum of thirty-one dollars and fifty cents, or in case the present or former Trustees, or either of them, have paid said bill, then to make the order for said bill in favor of the person so paying it.

E. R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools.

Providence, June 8, 1853.

I approve of the above decision.

R. W. GREENE,

C. J. Supreme Court.

### SEPARATION OF THE SEXES IN SCHOOLS.

Having heretofore given one view of this question, we now give a Report of a Committee of the City of Charlestown, Mass., on the other side.

*To the Chairman of the Trustees of the Charlestown Free Schools,—*

A majority of the Committee to whom was referred the Petition of William Eager and one hundred and seventy-five others, residents in the Harvard School District, praying that "the details of the Regulations of the School Committee be so altered as to allow the girls to occupy one Hall in the Harvard School House, and the boys the other, under their respective Teachers," beg leave to submit the following Report:—

As the Petitioners had said in their Petition that there were objections to the present arrangement of the Harvard School of a strong, serious, and decisive character, without specifying in any way what those objections were, it was decided at the first meeting of your Committee, to request the Petitioners to hand in a written statement of these objections. A Letter, previously prepared by the Chairman of the Committee, was accordingly addressed to Mr. William Eager, whose name was at the head of the Petitioners. It was also agreed to send a circular which had been prepared by the Chairman of the Committee, to the Masters of the Grammar Schools of the City, requesting, in a series of questions, their opinions of the result of the change in the arrangement of the Schools. Copies of the letter to Mr. Eager, and of the Circular to the Masters, are herewith given, and they, together with the "brief

summary of reasons," handed in by the Petitioners in reply to the letter to Mr. Eager, and the answers of the several Masters to the Circular, are annexed hereto and made a part of this Report.

In the consideration of the subject-matter of the Petition, the majority of your Committee have endeavored to examine candidly the arguments in favor of, and those against, the present arrangement of the Grammar Schools in this city, and of the old arrangement, to which, for convenience sake, they have given the names of the Mixed System, and the Separate System; and they have come to their conclusion partly from those reasons which the nature of the case must suggest to every one; partly from their personal experience in Schools and in the oversight of Schools, and partly from the authority and experience of Teachers and friends of Education. This authority and experience must be co-extensive with the spread of Education and the existence of Teachers. But this it would be impossible, even if it were desirable, to obtain. That which the majority of your Committee would now present to the Board, consists of the replies of the Masters of the Grammar Schools in this city to the Circular of your Committee, and the answers of some of the Masters of the Salem Schools, to a communication from a member of your Committee. The reply of a gentleman of Boston, of much experience in Education, to a similar communication, is also given. It should, however, be stated that the only *written* authority of Teachers, &c., before the *whole* Committee, was that of the Masters of the Grammar Schools in this city, although the substance of the opinions of the Salem Teachers, as derived from personal interviews with them, was mentioned in committee. The letters, the replies to which are herewith presented for the information of the Board, and connected by the majority of the Committee with their Report, were addressed to the Salem Teachers after the last meeting of the whole Committee, in order to present their opinions to the Board in an authentic and definite form; and letters were sent to the Salem Teachers particularly, because Mixed Schools have been for a long time in operation in that city, a place in many respects like Charlestown.

As these letters are all before your Board, and as they will be read for your information, the majority of your Committee do not think it necessary to state in detail the different means of information which the different teachers have had, or the different conclusions to which they arrive. The majority of your Committee would only say generally, and once for all, that in their opinion, both as respects more extended sources

of information and a larger experience, the weight of authority is decidedly against the Mixed System, and in favor of the Separate System.

The arguments adduced in favor of the Mixed System are, that it favors discipline, making the Schools more easy to be governed ;—that it stimulates both sexes to exertion and increases the amount of study, and that it renders both sexes more chaste and circumspect in their language, and more attentive to their dress and personal appearance.

This statement embraces, so far as the majority of your Committee recollect, the arguments in favor of the Mixed System, and these they purpose to examine briefly, in detail.

And first as regards discipline. It cannot be said that heretofore the discipline has been bad in the Schools of Charlestown, or that good order is not now kept in the Schools of Boston, and of other places where the Separate System prevails. The first thing to be taught in any School is obedience. The Master who does not teach obedience, or who fails in government, is not fit to be a master. Obedience must be taught as a fixed principle and rule, and must be required unhesitatingly and implicitly of all scholars, whether boys or girls, whether in Mixed or in Separate Schools. The argument, then, that the Mixed System favors discipline, has little or no weight in settling the question at issue, for perfect discipline can be kept and is kept, in Separate Schools, and the difficulties in the way of discipline are such that a teacher who could not keep a Separate School in discipline, could not control a Mixed School. Indeed, the argument does not state that the Mixed System is *necessary* to discipline, but only that it *favors* discipline. On this point, the majority of your Committee believe that the Mixed System renders the discipline more difficult, for two reasons. It gives incitement and opportunity for the commission of offences which are the inevitable result of the union of the sexes in the same room, that would never be thought of in Separate Schools, and at the same time it makes the punishment of all offences more difficult, from the different modes of discipline necessary for the two sexes. If a boy and girl commit the same offence, it may be necessary to use the rod upon the boy, while a different punishment would produce the desired effect upon the girl. If the teacher makes a difference between the sexes in the punishment of the same offence, he is accused of partiality, and the punishment loses most of its effect ; while if he makes the flesh of the girl quiver under the rod or the ferule, he is liable to be charged with undue severity. The majority of your Committee would subject neither the discipline of the Schools to such peril, nor the Masters to such an unpleasant alternative.



Secondly. The argument that it stimulates both sexes to exertion and increases the amount of study, is thought to be untrue in its full extent, and it is considered one that, from the necessary evils consequent upon it, should have no decisive influence in favor of the Mixed System. The argument must be founded upon this,—that the best scholars of a class help on the poorer ones, and that as a general rule, girls of a certain age are quicker to learn and better scholars than boys of the same age, and so, if put in a class of boys, will aid the class. The principle here stated is undoubtedly correct, but it is incorrectly applied. Good scholars in a class do help the poorer ones; but it is not necessary that all the good scholars should be girls, and that the poor ones should be boys; nor is it invariably the case that the good scholars are girls, and that the poor ones are boys. The working of the principle is as satisfactory and as advantageous, when the two grades of scholars in a class are of the same sex, as where they are of different sexes; and the reason, in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, why the two grades of scholars may as well be of the same sex, is, that any peculiar influence of the different sexes that may be relied on as the immediate consequence of the Mixed System, will fail when the novelty of the affair is worn off, and when the sexes are accustomed to each other's presence from their first entrance into the primary schools. But there is another side to this question. In the same proportion that the boys are helped, the girls will be injured, for the influence is reciprocal; and where the good scholars help the poor ones, the poor ones are a drawback and a weight upon the advancement of the good ones. And, in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, no advantage should be sought for the one sex which brings with it an equal and corresponding evil to the other sex.

The argument that the Mixed System makes both sexes more chaste and circumspect in their language, must have reference to the deportment of the sexes *out* of the school-room, if it has reference to any thing; for *in* the school-room, the only language permitted is that of the recitation, where answers are given to the questions of the Master; and it is not easily seen how, in the recitations in schools under the Separate System, under the eye and in the hearing of the Master, there can be any improprieties of speech or manner which the presence of pupils of the other sex would be necessary to correct or improve. But if the argument has reference to the language of the play-ground or street, the majority of your Committee have not yet been shown how the intermixture of the sexes makes either sex more chaste or circumspect in its language or man-

ners while engaged in the rough plays of thoughtless childhood.

So in regard to the remaining reasons assigned in favor of the Mixed System. If the children of the different sexes are neat and attentive to their personal appearance because they are to be seen by the other sex, and for this reason only, a low and unworthy inducement is held out to the sexes for the formation of these important habits, while, as the principle can act only in the presence of the two sexes, it must be inoperative when they are separated, and the opposite habits might be formed. Besides it is by no means admitted that habits of neatness cannot be formed in separate schools, and that they have not been so formed in previous years. It is not known that there has been any complaint upon this subject. The majority of your Committee are of opinion that under the Mixed System there would be but few, if any, instances in these respects, and they think that it may well be questioned whether the feeling that makes boys or girls, who when in separate Schools were untidy and unattentive to their personal appearance, suddenly go to the other extreme, does not arise from a disposition to gallantry which no parent could wish to see fostered in our public schools.

If, as the majority of your Committee believe, the above opinions and reasoning are correct, the arguments adduced in favor of the Mixed System are inconclusive, and open to objections which utterly destroy their weight.

But besides, there are objections to the Mixed System which the majority of your Committee believe the Petitioners have rightly described in their "brief summary of reasons," as being of a strong, serious and decisive character. The majority of your Committee would refer generally to that "brief summary" and will also briefly state the objections to the Mixed System which press most strongly and decisively upon their minds.

And first in respect to Instruction. The difficulties which present themselves in regard to discipline have been heretofore stated—and now the objections are given in respect to Instruction purely. In the opinion of the majority of your Committee a wise plan of Education points out a different course of Instruction for the different sexes. They believe with the Petitioners that girls should not be instructed as though they were to be our "future engineers, merchants, navigators, lawgivers and rulers," but that they should be so taught as to perform appropriately the peculiar duties of their sex. The majority of your Committee do not think it necessary to enlarge upon this point; for they suppose that its truth is generally

admitted. Nor do they consider that by the establishment of the High School for advanced scholars, the force of this argument will apply in its full force to a large class of scholars who will, from necessity, receive all their Education in the Grammar Schools. And if the course of Instruction for the different sexes ought to be different, the separate system is the only one that can be used to advantage. Another difficulty in the Schools under the Mixed System, will arise from the nature of some of the studies taught. It is thought to be the universal opinion that Physiology, for instance, should be taught to some extent at least in all the Grammar Schools. No prudent teacher would venture to instruct boys and girls in this subject in the same class, or even in the same room.

Secondly, in respect to morals. Here the majority of your Committee think that the effect of the Mixed System is decidedly bad. In small schools in towns of sparse population, and even in country villages where the scholars and the parents of the scholars are all known to each other, the evils may be less felt, and more easily corrected. But in the large Schools of densely populated maritime cities, which it is alike the boast and glory of our Common School System are open to all, where children of every grade and those subject to all sorts of influences at home meet together, the evils necessary to the mixed System are greatly increased. The majority of your Committee will state what some of these moral evils are. No one who knows boys, it is thought can deny, that, as a general rule, by the time they reach the age of twelve years, and with many at a much earlier period, they have become familiar with the common words of vulgarity, obscenity and profanity—with the last perhaps to a less extent. How far this evil extends, in reference to the first two vices, to the other sex no definite opinion is ventured, but it is feared that the contamination is more deeply spread than is generally supposed. It is also believed to be true that a large proportion of the words of vulgarity and obscenity have reference to sexual differences; and that these words are nowhere spoken more freely and unblushingly than when children are collected in large numbers as at schools, and they rarely collect in so large numbers elsewhere. The constant, daily, presence of the other sex is continually recalling these sexual peculiarities, and the impure ideas associated with them. And certainly in the opinion of the majority of your Committee, neither sex should be unnecessarily exposed to this peril. The impurity will exist, it is to be feared, in separate schools, but it may slumber at times, while in schools under the Mixed System, the flame is constantly fed. These evils exist even when no

improper words or communications pass between the sexes, and when such communication is had the evil is increased. That such communication is had, even in spite of the vigilance of the most faithful master, it is not doubted. Discoveries are made by the teacher rarely, while the successful instances of deception are known, if not to the School at large, at least to the little coterie around the wrong doer. The effect of these illicit communications both upon discipline and morals is equally demoralizing.

There are other objections to the Mixed System which, from their delicacy, cannot be urged in a written report with the precision and distinctness to which they are entitled. The Board cannot fail to perceive, however, that embarrassment to both teachers and pupils may arise from causes over which nature alone has control.

The above conclusions of themselves would be sufficient to convince the majority of your Committee that the prayer of the Petitioners should be granted. They also present another consideration for a return to the old or Separate System, which, in their opinion, would be conclusive in a case even more nicely balanced than the present, and that is the wishes, temperately and strongly stated, of so large a proportion of the residents in the Harvard District. Whatever evil may result from the Mixed System, will fall on them through their children, and their warning voice should certainly be heard, when they would attempt to avert the impending danger.

The majority of your Committee, therefore, recommend that the prayer of the petitioners be granted, and that the boys occupy one room of the Harvard School House, and the girls the other, under their respective Teachers.

Respectfully submitted,

CHAS. W. MOORE, { *Majority of the*  
GEO. P. SANGER, { *Committee.*

*Charlestown, May 24th, 1848.*

LETTER FROM WM. B. FOWLE, Esq.

138 1-2 WASHINGTON STREET, }  
Boston, May 19, 1848. }

CHARLES W. MOORE, Esq.

*My Dear Sir,*—In answer to your inquiry what my opinion is of the plan of instructing the two sexes in the presence of each other, I frankly say, that I consider it injudicious, if not positively injurious, and if you ask me why I think so, I reply :—

1. That my *experience* has satisfied me that it is safer to separate them.



2. The opinion of many of the best teachers in the country, *who are married*, coincides with my own. At Teachers' Institutes I have made this a subject of special inquiry.

3. The subjects taught to the two sexes should be materially different, and some subjects can be taught to one sex in the absence of the other, that cannot be so well taught when they are together. This is evident where males teach boys, and females girls.

4. The discipline required by the two sexes is so different that the teacher who makes the proper distinction will certainly lose his character for impartiality. On no other ground than this can I account for the barbarous practice of striking females as boys are punished.

5. The sentimentalism that I sometimes hear, about the civilizing influence of the gentler sex over the other, is contradicted by my observation and experience. Mischiefs arise ten times as often as any good is done by this intercourse.

6. In all Mixed Schools there will be some impure minds of both sexes, and their active influence will do far more evil than the quiet example of good ones will do good. Prevention is the key to discipline and good morals.

7. Boys will use bad language in the presence of girls, whether these incline to hear it or not. They will do indelicate things to show their spirit. They will have their favorite girls, and these will flirt at a very early age. Signs will be adopted, and letters interchanged, and assignations often made. This I have known to be carried to a great extent in some Academies, which are usually Mixed Schools.

8. Very many judicious parents will not allow their daughters to go to Mixed Schools, and yet these are the very children that we wish to draw into the Public Schools.

9. Most male Teachers prefer to teach girls, and they rarely advise a separation, if the girls are to be removed from under their care. *Ex-teachers* are the best advisers.

When the children are under seven years of age, the danger is lessened but not removed. Things are seen, and said, and done, even in these Primary Schools, which leave a permanent stain upon the mind, especially if the yard and the privy are common to the two sexes.

Any one who knows me will know that these opinions do not arise from any austerity of character, or any preciseness of manners. I know what I saw at school when I was young, I know what I saw for twenty-one years while I was a Teacher, I know what other Teachers have told me, and

what has been told me by my pupils, and yet I believe no School ever possessed a higher tone of morality than mine.

I should be glad to copy these remarks, and enlarge upon each, but I have not time, and your own good sense will anticipate much of what I should say.

Yours, very respectfully,

WM. B. FOWLE.

**PUBLIC LIBRARIES.**—Munich has seventeen public libraries, into every one of which strangers unquestioned may enter, peruse, and depart in peace. Of these institutions, the most celebrated are lending-libraries. Statistics preach where Sermon does not lift its voice. These are its words: In London there are in round numbers 500,000 volumes accessible to the public, or about an average of twenty-two volumes to every 100 inhabitants. Dublin, with all its deficiencies, has 59. In Paris, the proportion is 160 volumes to every 100 inhabitants; in Berlin, 182; in Florence, 317; in Copenhagen, 467; in Dresden, 490; in Munich, 780. So that Paris is six times better provided than London; Berlin, seven times; Florence, thirteen times; Copenhagen, nineteen times; Dresden, twenty times; and Munich, thirty-one times.

**TERRITORIES TO BECOME STATES.**—Utah would make twenty States of the size of New Hampshire; Nebraska, fifteen; Indian, twenty; Northwest, sixty-five. Total, one hundred and twenty-six States. Should these Territories have an equal population to the square mile with New Hampshire, they would contain a population of above thirty-eight million souls.

**A DRESS CONSTRUCTION.**—In a Sunday school, lately, at Winton, near Manchester, Eng., it was announced that there would be addresses given in the afternoon, and the children present were requested to inform their absent brothers and sisters. One girl came home in great glee, giving a sister that had not attended regularly the following version of it:—“There’s going to be dresses gen away at school this arternoon, but I doan’t think thau’s ony casion to goa, for I doan’t think they’ll gie thee one, thau goas so seldom.”

The Bible is a book worth more than all the other books which were ever printed.—*Patrick Henry.*

From the Buffalo Commercial Advertiser.

### MACAULAY'S STYLE.

This article is already long, but before we close, we must be indulged in some brief observations on two peculiarities of the style of Macaulay, which go to confirm what we have already stated in relation to his want of acquaintance with the Greek writers. Or if they do not prove as much as this, they at least show that he has been far enough from taking any pains to form his style on those incomparable models.

One of these peculiarities is the rhetorical trick which he so constantly practices, of overstating his positions and arguments, and intensifying the effect by an endless exuberance of illustration. Now the characteristic of the Attic writers is a temperance of statement and expression, which reminds one of a spirited steed, held in check by his rider, and conveying the impression of a great reserve of speed and mettle behind what was allowed to be manifested.

In writers of the very highest class, there is a wonderful clearness and exactness of conception, combined with the power of creating precise and fit expression, so that they convey, at once, and on the first trial, the very impression they aim to give. Inferior writers flounder around and around their subject, trying one form of expression and then the other, only because they lack the skill to hit the mark the first shot; and their simple and admiring readers praise that affluence of words and illustration with which they strive to help the indistinctness of their conceptions.

We weary of a writer who wants the power of selection and disposition, and confuses us by a multitude of details and particulars, though they form a part of his subject: but we are sometimes weak enough to admire him who, instead of giving us a clear picture of his subject, confuses and bewilders us by making it a support on which he hangs a store of fine pictures of other things, which have more or less resemblance to it.

The other peculiarity of Macaulay's style which we wish to notice, is his fondness for short sentences. Every reader must have noticed it, and indeed it forms no inconsiderable part of his curious wordcraft. Opening a volume of these speeches at random, we light on the following, which we quote as a specimen of what we allude to:

"This mistake our ancestors committed. They posted a church in Ireland just as they posted garrisons in Ireland.

The garrisons did their work. They were disliked. But that mattered not. They had their forts and their arms, and they kept down the aboriginal race. But the church did not do its work. For to that work the love and confidence of the people were essential."

This kind of writing is always out of place, except in the description of some thrilling catastrophe, to which such breathless interest attaches, that the slightest particulars become affecting incidents, and the mind, in the fulness of its emotion, gives an importance to each separate idea which justifies its expression in a distinct sentence. To dress up trifles and nothings in this species of style, as Macaulay frequently does, seems to us to betray an overwhelming conceit, as if the merest trifle, when *he* uttered it, had the dignity of an important proposition. Short sentences are perspicuous, and do not fatigue the attention; but he possesses little skill in the art of composition, who cannot combine clearness with a more flowing style.

When a thought is broken up into so many fragmentary propositions, there is no opportunity for that skillful arrangement, and delicate shading, which brings the leading idea prominently forward, and throws its accessories about it as graceful drapery; and instead of laying before you a naked man, and a shirt, and a vest, and unmentionables, and a coat, and boots, and a hat, as separate objects of attention, presents to you a gentleman with his toilette made and his beaver on. Melody is one of the higher qualities of style; but there is no more music in a volley of short sentences, let off in rapid succession, than there was in the jolting of the Ohio Senator's carriage in his memorable midnight ride, which Mrs. Stowe graphically describes as "proceeding along, much as follows : bump ! bump ! bump ! slush !"

We have told our readers what in our opinion is not to be admired in Macaulay; there are few who have a proper relish for literary good things, that need to be told what in him really deserves admiration. No English writer of the present day, the novelists excepted, is so widely read; and none, without exception, so generally admired.

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I am of opinion that the Bible contains more true sublimity, more exquisite beauty, more pure morality, more important history, and finer strains of poetry and eloquence, than can be collected from all other books, in whatever age or language they have been written.—*Sir Wm. Jones.*



## SCHOOL LAW.

In the case of the application of Stephen A. Salisbury late trustee of school district No. 12 of Burrillville, for the assessment and collection of a tax upon said district.

The parties were heard by the Commissioner at a meeting at the district school house, May 24, 1853, called by notice issued by the Commissioner, and posted up on the door of the school house.

It appears that at a district meeting legally notified and held on the 4th Dec. 1852, the district voted a tax of thirty-five dollars upon the property of the district in order to continue the district school three months, and the tax was subsequently approved by the Committee of the town.

The trustee employed a teacher and commenced the school on the 13th Dec.

Jan. 4, 1853, several persons applied to the trustee to call a special meeting, and a notice was issued calling a meeting to be held Jan. 10. The meeting was applied for "for the purpose of considering the present tax, as there are persons taxed, who live and are taxed on the same property in another district; also property in the district not taxed." The notice also specified other objects, but no notice was given of any proposition to rescind the tax, nor did the request refer to any such intent unless it is implied from the foregoing words.

At this meeting the district voted to rescind the tax and to direct the trustee to discontinue the school as soon as the public money was expended.

The trustee contends that he was authorized by the district to make the contract he did, and that the district had no right to rescind after the contract was made.

Under the old school law, if a district made a contract or authorized one to be made, and then refused to provide the means of fulfilling it, a suit might have been brought against the district in the State Courts and damages and costs recovered against the district.

As this was expensive to both parties, the revised law, Sec. 46, has provided in addition to the remedy by suit which still remains, that "if a district tax shall be voted, assessed, approved of and a contract legally entered into under it, or such contract be legally enter-

ed into without such vote, assessment or approval, and said district shall thereafter neglect or refuse to proceed and collect a tax, the Commissioner of Public Schools after notice and hearing the parties, may appoint assessors to assess a tax and issue a warrant to the collector of the district, or to a collector by him appointed, authorizing and requiring him to proceed and collect said tax." Under this section the present application is made.

The fact of the tax being assessed or of its having been approved by the Committee, would not take from the district the right to rescind it. The whole turns upon the question whether a contract was legally entered into under the vote of the district, and I am of opinion that it was. The district therefore could not rescind it after the contract was made without being liable to a suit for damages or to a process like that now applied for.

It becomes therefore unnecessary to decide whether the notice for the second meeting was sufficient to justify the district in rescinding the tax.

As a general rule, it is not advisable for district officers to proceed in expending money or making a contract unless they are satisfied that a majority of the tax payers, absent as well as present, are fairly in favor of it. A mere accidental majority occasioned by absence of opponents is unsafe. And if a case should arise where district officers should undertake to avail themselves of such an accidental majority, and there should be any appearance of a design to anticipate or prevent a repeal of the tax by entering into a contract before there could be time for having another meeting, the Commissioner of Public Schools would not lend the aid of his office to the enforcement of it, but would leave the parties to their action at law.

In the present case however there is no evidence but that the trustee acted fairly and honestly.

The proper process must therefore be issued for assessing and collecting the tax according to the beforementioned provisions of the law.

E. R. POTTER,

Commissioner of Public Schools.

Providence, June 8, 1853.

I approve of the above decision.

June 10, 1853.

R. W. GREENE,

C. J. Supreme Court.

## THE WORTH OF HOURS.

MILNES.

We extract the following lines from "Poetry for Home and School, Boston 1846," a collection of poetry which should be in every school library and in every family.

Believe not that your inner eye  
Can ever in just measure try  
The worth of hours as they go by ;

For every man's weakself, alas !  
Makes him to see them, while they pass,  
As through a dim or tainted glass :

But if in earnest care you would  
Meet out to each its part of good,  
Trust rather to your aftermood.

Those surely are not fairly spent  
That leave your spirit bowed and bent  
In sad unrest and ill content :

And more,—though free from seeming harm  
You rest from toil of mind or arm,  
Or slow retire from Pleasure's charm,

If then a painful sense comes on  
Of something wholly lost and gone,  
Vainly enjoyed or vainly done,—

Of something from your being's chain  
Broke off, nor to be linked again  
By all mere memory can retain,—

Upon your heart this truth may rise,  
Nothing that altogether dies  
Suffices Man's just destinies :

So should we live, that every Hour  
May die as dies the natural flower,  
A self-reviving thing of power ;

That every Thought and every Deed  
May hold within itself the seed  
Of future good and future need ;

Esteeming Sorrow, whose employ  
Is to develope not destroy,  
Far better than a barren Joy.

## EXTRACTS FROM A "MARINER'S SKETCHES,"

BY NATHANIEL AMES, PROVIDENCE, 1830.

My first recollections are connected with a little, old, 'ten foot' school house, which like the domicile of Joe Strickland's Uncle Ben, was situated 'close to the meetin hous,' and its vinegar faced sovereign, Miss G——, or as she was more familiarly and generally called, Miss Betsey. A Catholic would have called her 'Nuestra Senora della Pianti,' our lady of Complaints, for she was the exciting cause of most of the *vagitus infantom* that were to be heard in the village.

Some of her punishments were peculiar to herself, and I will mention them, the more readily, as I feel no fear of their re-infliction, unless the Massachusetts Legislature, among its innumerable acts, should pass one for their revival, or some of our anti-capital-punishment senators should recommend them to Congress as substitutes for dangling.

In the partition there was a gimblet-hole, an inch or two higher than my head from the floor, into which a lock of my hair, (for this punishment was a monopoly of mine,) was put and secured by a peg, so that I was compelled to stand on tiptoe and bolt upright, with my jaws drawn ajar, like the door of a grog shop on Sunday morning.

This answered very well for one season, but the next summer, when as usual, I commenced operations by drawing down upon my head the indignation of the 'school-ma'am,' and one of my 'bright yellow locks' was put into well known durance, I found that I had grown so much during the fall and winter, that I could 'stand at ease,' as soldiers say. Her ingenuity, however 'devised brave punishments,' of another kind for me.

The school house tongs were mounted astride on my neck, and I was ordered to stand in the middle of the room, for a 'vlouting stock,' as Sir Hugh Evans would call it, to the rest of the scholars. I had not been 'on post' but a few moments, when one of the boys, 'a fellow of infinite humor,' throw his countenance into such a grotesque shape, that human gravity, which had just left off petticoats, was no proof against it. My cachinations reached the offended ears of Miss Betsey, who striding up to me, like a walking pair of compasses, laid hold of the end of the tongs, and gave me a very correct idea of the sensations of hanging.

When we were at play before school, some of the most active were stationed at the corner of the street, and the mo-



ment the alarm was given, 'the school-ma'am is coming,' the whole fleet immediately 'bore up and made sail' for the school house. The girls, who might be denominated the 'inshore squadron,' seldom ventured far from the door, with the exception of some of the oldest, who mixed among the boys, practising the 'manual exercise' of airs and graces, of smiles and blushes with the innate and long-enduring spirit of coquetry peculiar to the sex.

During the winter months, I was sent to 'a man's school' which had a new prime minister every season. Among the first that I recollect was a gentleman from Providence, who was a kind of a 'king log,' among us, and was regularly saluted, when school was done, with a shower of snow-balls, and escorted to his lodgings by a detachment of young Cossacks, who 'harrassed his rear,' with an irregular but well directed discharge of the same missiles.

\* \* \* \* \*

From law and medicine I made a natural transition to divinity, and was fitted for college by a clergyman of somewhat eccentric habits, with whom I became a great favorite, and whose smoking tobacco I used to qualify with gunpowder, which the unsuspecting, good old man smoked as usual, but occasionally broke out in exclamations of surprise at the unaccountable explosions, mixed with expressions of indignation at the shopkeeper who supplied his pipe.

His school was composed of three others besides myself; one of them, the son of one of our Governors, another, the son of a Boston merchant, and the third, a long-sided Habakkuk Mucklewrath-looking creature, from Vermont, I believe, now a minister, and married; for when did a preacher ever have any further trouble in the 'matrimonial line,' than just to throw the handkerchief, like the Grand Turk?

Having attained a suitable age, I made my appearance at Cambridge, with eighty-two others, as candidates for admission to the literary arena.

In the course of my examination, the professor of Mathematics, asked me abruptly, 'How much is twice two?' to which I answered after some hesitation, 'Four.' Question second followed like a flash of lightning, 'How do you prove that?' This was what cockneys call a 'settler;' and after pondering some time, I was forced to 'give it up,' and was informed that 'Twice two made four by the repeated addition of one!'

\* \* \* \* \*

While the class was struggling through Millot's Universal

History, the most utterly worthless and contemptible work of that kind or any other extant, and which the sagacious 'faculty' of Harvard, adopted as a class book, the tutor asked one day, 'Did Cato die?' to which the student, after hastily counting the centuries that had elapsed since the last day of the Roman republic, and finding they amounted to nearly nineteen, boldly answered, 'Yes sir,' taking it for granted that so staunch a friend of republics as Cato, would, if he were alive, have emigrated to the United States, and taken an active part in politics; but it seems he was 'clean wrong,' for the profound and accurate tutor immediately replied, 'No, he did not, he killed himself.'

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### EDWARD IRVING ON EDUCATION.

"Those systems of education whose chief aim it is to teach the nature of the physical productions of the earth, and the mechanical arts by which they are to be transported from place to place, and the chemical arts by which their forms and properties are changed, and the science of economy or of turning our handiwork to the best account, are to me no systems of education whatever, unless I could persuade myself that man was merely king of the animals, head laborer and master workman of the earth. I can see a great use and value in these physical sciences, to enable a man to maintain himself with less brutal labor, to the end he may have more leisure for higher and nobler occupations; and in this respect I greatly admire them, as having bowed the stubborn neck of the elements to the spirit of man and restored him that power over creation with which he was endowed at first. But if he is to be taught in his youth no higher occupation than this, no God like recreation of the soul, no spiritual sciences; and if what he is taught of intellect be thus bound down like Prometheus to the barren earth, then have we an education, which, however splendid in its apparatus, however imposing in its experiments, however fruitful in riches and all which riches can command, is poor and meagre, low, mean and earthly, altogether insufficient to satisfy man's estate; which doth but harness him for his work, which doth but enslave and enserf him to the soil, but giveth to him no tokens, no hint nor intimation of his reasonable being; for I call not that reason which labors in the clay; it is but the instinct of the noble animal and not the reason of the spiritual being. Such education will depress a people out of manliness, out of liberty,

out of poetry and religion and whatever else hath been the crown of glory around the brows of mankind." Quoted from English Journal of Education. New Series. Vol. 2, p. 238.

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## REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE

OF CHARLESTOWN, R. I.

To the town of Charlestown, in Town Meeting assembled:—Your Committee are again called upon to lay before you an account of their labors; and in so doing to make you acquainted with the present condition of our Schools and School Districts, and the means by which they have been, and may be still further improved.

This subject is one of no ordinary interest; its results are vital in their importance; they affect every individual in the community. Our common school system of education is the only basis upon which the superstructure of our civil and political liberties can securely stand; and if that basis be weakened, either by the lack of sufficient means or the apathy of our several Committees, in the same degree will the perpetuity of our free institutions be endangered.

We are glad that it is in our power to say that this vitally important subject is begining to be more generally appreciated. In our tour of school inspection, it has been to us a source of real gratification to find a marked advancement in the several School Districts; and we have witnessed with pleasure the interest and the unanimity of effort with which parents and trustees have mutually co-operated in the elevation of the educational and moral standard of our Schools, to the full extent attainable under the workings of the present system, and the limited means made available by our town for the purpose of public instruction.

We are of opinion that the trustees have put forth their best efforts in the selection of competent and efficient Teachers; and although in a few instances (as will be seen in the reports of the Districts) their exertions have failed of entire success, yet on the whole we have ample occasion for gratitude.

Another and indispensable element in the success of this most important enterprise, is the grant by the town of a sufficiency of means to continue the schools at least eight months in the year, and this attained, a small rate bill would make the schools permanent, an object particularly desirable in all the districts in the town.

At the annual town meeting of the town of Charlestown, June 1st, 1852, Peleg T. Brightman, John W. Tucker and Charles Cross, were appointed to superintend the public schools in the several districts.

This Committee met the 7th day of June, and organized by choosing John W. Tucker Chairman, and Peleg T. Brightman Clerk.

The amount of money received for the maintenance of our schools for the past year is as follows :—

State appropriation,	\$247 18
Town do	125 00
Registry taxes,	97 48
	<hr/>
	470 66

Which was divided one half equally amongst the several districts ; the remainder according to the average school attendance the preceeding year, with the exception of the Registry Tax, which was divided equally among the districts.

In addition to the regular quarterly meetings, your Committee have held several special sessions for the consideration of the wants of the different districts and schools.

There have been eleven teachers employed the past year, and with but one exception, they have been of the right stamp ; and in almost every respect, well qualified for the important and difficult work they had undertaken. The schools have exhibited a prosperous and improving condition, compared with last year, results which may be legitimately expected from those who make teaching a permanent business.

A very considerable proportion of the teachers have had long experience ; others whose experience has been less, have made up in a good degree that deficiency by ample literary qualifications, and devotion to their duties.

PELEG T. BRIGHTMAN,	} Committee.
JOHN W. TUCKER,	
CHARLES CROSS,	

June, 1853.

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If a person obtain a true knowledge of the christian religion, let him study the Holy Scriptures—especially the New Testament, therein are contained the words of eternal life. It has God for its author, salvation for its end, and truth without any mixture of error.—*John Locke.*



From the Christian Inquirer.

# THE MOHAMMEDAN SAINTS.

VERSIFIED FROM THOLUCK'S "MYSTICISMS OF THE EAST."

BY J. F. C.

I.

Rabia, sick upon her bed,  
By two saints was visited :

II.

Holy Malik, Hassam wise ;  
Men of mark in Moslem eyes.

III.

Hassam says—"Whose prayer is pure,  
Will God's chastisements endure."

IV.

Malik, from a deeper sense,  
Uttered his experience—

V.

"He who loves his Master's choice,  
Will in chastisement *rejoice*."

VI.

Rabia saw some selfish will  
In their maxims lingering still.

VII.

And replied—"O men of grace !  
He who sees his Master's face,

VIII.

"Will not in his prayer recall  
That he is chastised at all !"

I will hazard the assertion, that no man ever did or ever will become truly eloquent, without being a constant reader of the Bible, and an admirer of the purity and sublimity of its language.—*Fisher Ames*.

COLERIDGE, speaking of short epigrammatic sentences, says :—Such a style an ancient critic would have deemed purposely invented for persons troubled with the asthma to read, and for them to comprehend who labor under the more pitiable asthma of a short-witted intellect.

Mend your Kakelology.—[*Heir at Law.*]

I am not the oldest person in the world, but have lived long enough in it to have witnessed a good many alterations. But of all the variations of fashions, manners, religious and political creeds and opinions, nothing has struck me so forcibly as the change which the signification of many English words and phrases, and the manner of using them, has undergone.

Ideas and ladies certainly appear in a very different and entirely new style of dress, to which they wore five and twenty or thirty years ago, an unequivocal sign of the 'march of intellect' and progress of refinement.

Once, we used simply to say a ship was launched; now she 'glides majestically into her destined element.' Formerly, when a road, bridge, canal, &c., was out of order, we used to say it was undergoing repairs; the Philadelphia and New York editors of this refined generation, tell us that 'it is being mending;' the same gentlemen will probably soon say that at the last dates from Washington such or such a bill 'was being being discussed.'

When two gentlemen in a public assembly blackguard each other like two pickpockets, they are said to make use of 'severe vituperations and personal reflections;' if one of them should happen to swear like a pirate at the time, he uses 'an energetic method' of expressing himself.

A writer in a Boston paper, who has travelled it seems in Turkey, has kindly volunteered to 'mend our kakelology' with regard to the word Tartar, which he spells *Tatar*. I was a good deal puzzled to imagine who these 'Tatars' could be, but as the writer hinted at their possessing the faculties of speech and spontaneous locomotion, I set them down as human beings.

Some years ago folks used to be hanged now and then; now they are uniformly 'launched into eternity;' but this expression will soon become obsolete, the 'dew-eyed pity' of our judges, juries, and governors, having consented to consider 'killing no murder.' (Vide *U. States versus Drew; Commonwealth versus Isaac B. Desha; Same versus Michael Mc'Garvey, &c.*) In this last mentioned case the march of the jury's intellect seemed to have been far too rapid for slow justice to keep pace with.

'Optical indecisions' has supplanted squinting; editors of newspapers have left off publishing lists of marriages and deaths, but refer their readers to their 'hymeneal register' for an account of the pairs that are daily 'yoked to the matrimonial wagon,' while the continual retirements of the members of 'Adam's lost race,' are comprehended under 'obituary notices.'

The ladies, (bless them !) have also lent a hand to the great work of refining our language. Dancing till sunrise they call 'spending a delightful evening,' and it is a beautiful 'morning' till nearly sundown, when the 'afternoon' commences, and lasts till midnight. It is also 'extremely pleasant' when the thermometer stands at 100 degrees in the shade, and 'quite chilly' or 'really quite uncomfortable' with the mercury at 30 degrees below zero.

I was once invited by a lady to pass the 'evening' at her house and meet a few friends. I accordingly exhibited myself about an hour after dark, thinking that was evening 'in the eye of the law.' After sitting 'melancholy and gentleman-like' till after nine, to the manifest 'indignation and wrath, tribulation and anguish' of my fair hostess, I made my bow and escaped just as the company began to drop in.

It is scarcely necessary to observe, that my unfortunate ignorance of the fashionable divisions of time was considered by the lady as good and sufficient ground for a 'miff,' which has lasted to this day.

Drinking stoutly before dinner is 'taking some refreshment,' being as drunk as David's sow, is 'considerably excited;' a man who makes a swindling failure is 'considerably embarrassed;' a lady who flirts shamelessly with every young fellow, is 'very free in her manners.'

Besides all these and many more alterations, our mother tongue is fast assuming a dress like that of a state's prison convict, one leg of its inexpressibles being made of Greek, and the other of French, while the waistbands are formed of Latin. Fashionable intemperates are no longer afflicted with indigestion, it is 'dyspepsy; the asthma has ceased its ravages and given up the field to 'dyspnoea.' Good penmanship is 'calligraphy,' and any kind of writing is 'chirography.'

Ladies wear dresses of 'Gros de Nap,' with sleeves 'en gigot,' and 'sautoirs en cravate;' part of their dress is 'en gerbe' with silks 'couleur de rose.' An actor no more comes on the stage, he makes his 'entre;' his first appearance before the public is his 'debut.'

Russians and Turks are no longer killed, wounded or taken prisoners, a dish of them is occasionally served up to the public cooked 'hors du combat.' Our newspapers are filled with 'sine qua nons,' and 'status ante bellums,' 'a posterioris' and 'a fortioris,' instead of the old fashioned reading,

"Hence, horrible shadow ! *un bona fide* mockery, hence !"

In short, the English language will soon become 'neither fish, flesh nor red herring;' indeed, an eminent bookseller assured me the other day that Walker's and Johnson's diction-

aries were fast becoming unsaleable, and but seldom referred to, except by a few dandies or 'blues' who wished to pass for antiquarians. He declared, with tears in his eyes, that if a vocabulary of the English *jargon* was to appear, it would drive his present stock of dictionaries and spelling books out of the market, and render them no better than so much waste paper.—[*From Ames' Mariner's Sketches.*]

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## THE UNIVESRAL PRAYER.

BY ALEXANDER POPE.

Father of all! in every age,  
 In every clime adored,  
 By saint, by savage, and by sage,  
 Jehovah, Jove or Lord!

Thou Great First Cause, least understood,  
 Who all my sense confined  
 To know but this, that thou art good.  
 And that myself am blind;

Yet gave me, in this dark estate,  
 To see the good from ill,  
 And binding nature fast in fate,  
 Left free the human will.

What conscience dictates to be done,  
 Or warns me not to do,  
 This, teach me more than Hell to shun,  
 That, more than Heaven pursue.

What blessings thy free bounty gives,  
 Let me not cast away;  
 For God is paid when man receives,  
 To enjoy is to obey.

Yet not to earth's contracted span  
 Thy goodness let me bound,  
 Or think thee Lord alone of man,  
 When thousand worlds are round.

Let not this weak unknowing hand  
 Presume thy bolts to throw,  
 And deal damnation round the land  
 On each I judge thy foe.

If I am right thy grace impart  
 Still in the right to stay;  
 If I am wrong, oh teach my heart  
 To find that better way.



Save me alike from foolish pride  
 And impious discontent,  
 At aught thy wisdom has denied  
 Or aught thy goodness lent.

Teach me to feel another's woe,  
 To hide the fault I see ;  
 That mercy I to others show,  
 That mercy show to me.

Mean though I am, not wholly so,  
 Since quickened by thy breath :  
 O lead me wheresoe'er I go,  
 Through this day's life or death.

This day, be bread and peace my lot :  
 All else beneath the sun,  
 Thou knowest if best bestowed or not,  
 And let thy will be done.

To thee, whose temple is all space,  
 Whose altar, earth, sea, skies !  
 One chorus let all being raise !  
 All nature's incense rise !

## STAR DUST.

From Sidney Smith's Sketches of Philosophy.

### MAN IN SOCIETY.

You spend your morning in learning from Hume what happened at particular periods of your own history. You dine where some man tells you what he has observed in the East Indies, and another discourses of brown sugar and Jamaica. It is from these perpetual rills of knowledge that you refresh yourself, and become strong and healthy as you are. If lions would consort together and growl out the observations they have made about killing sheep and shepherds, the most likely plan for catching a calf grazing, and so forth, they could not fail to improve.

### SOCRATES.

Socrates was, in truth, not very fond of subtle and refined speculations ; and upon the intellectual part of our nature little or nothing of his opinions is recorded. If we may infer anything from the clearness and simplicity of his opinions on moral subjects, and from the bent which his genius had received for the useful and the practical, he would certainly have laid a strong foundation for rational metaphysics. The slight sketch I have given of his moral doctrines contains no-

thing very new or very brilliant, but comprehends those moral doctrines which every person of education has been accustomed to hear from his childhood : but two thousand years ago they were great discoveries ; two thousand years since, common sense was not invented. If Orpheus, or Linus, or any of those melodious moralists, sung in bad verses, such advice as a grandmamma would now give to a child of six years old, he was thought to be inspired by the gods, and statues and altars were erected to his memory. In Hesiod there is a very grave exhortation to mankind to wash their faces ; and I have discovered a very strong analogy between the precepts of Pythagoras and Mrs. Trimmer ; both think that a son ought to obey his father, and both are clear that a good man is better than a bad one. Therefore, to measure aright this extraordinary man, we must remember the period at which he lived ; that he was the first who called the attention of mankind from the pernicious subtleties which engaged and perplexed their wandering understandings to the practical rules of life ; he was the great father and inventor of common sense, as Ceres was of the plough, and Bacchus of intoxication. First he taught his contemporaries that they did not know what they pretended to know ; then he showed them that they knew nothing ; then he told them what they ought to know. Lastly, to sum the praise of Socrates, remember that two thousand years ago while men were worshipping the stones on which they trod, and the insects which crawled beneath their feet ; two thousand years ago, with the bowl of poison in his hand, Socrates said, "I am persuaded that my death, which is now just coming, will conduct me into the presence of the gods, who are the most righteous governors, and into the society of just and good men ; and I derive confidence from the hope that something of man remains after death, and that the condition of good men will then be much better than that of the bad." Soon after this he covered himself up with his cloak, and expired.

#### INFLUENCE OF ASSOCIATION.

I remember once seeing an advertisement in the papers, with which I was much struck ; and which I will take the liberty of reading :—"Lost, in the Temple Coffee-House, and supposed to be taken away by mistake, an oaken stick, which has supported its master not only over the greatest part of Europe, but has been his companion in his journeys over the inhospitable deserts of Africa ; whoever will restore it to the waiter will confer a very serious obligation on the advertiser ; or, if that be any object, shall receive a recompense very much above the value of the article restored." Now, here is a man

who buys a sixpenny stick, because it is useful ; and totally forgetting the trifling causes which first made his stick of any consequence, speaks of it with warmth and affection ; calls it his companion ; and would hardly have changed it, perhaps, for the gold stick which is carried before the king. But the best and the strongest example of this, and of the customary progress of association, is in the passion of avarice. A child only loves a guinea because it shines ; and as it is equally splendid, he loves a gilt button as well. In after-life he begins to love wealth because it affords him the comforts of existence, and then loves it so well that he denies himself the common comforts of life to increase it. The uniting idea is so totally forgotten, that it is completely sacrificed to the ideas which it unites. Two friends unite against the person to whose introduction they are indebted for their knowledge of each other ; exclude him their society, and ruin him by their combination.

#### INDESTRUCTIBILITY OF ENJOYMENT.

Mankind are always happier for having been happy ; so that if you make them happy now, you make them happy twenty years hence, by the memory of it. A childhood passed with a due mixture of rational indulgence, under fond and wise parents, diffuses over the whole of life a feeling of calm pleasure ; and in extreme old age, is the very last remembrance which time can erase from the mind of man. No enjoyment, however inconsiderable, is confined to the present moment. A man is the happier for life, from having made once an agreeable tour, or lived for any length of time with pleasant people, or enjoyed any considerable interval of innocent pleasure, which contributes to render old men so inattentive to the scenes before them ; and carries them back to a world that is past, and to scenes never to be renewed again.

#### HAPPINESS AS A MORAL AGENT.

That virtue gives happiness, we all know ; but if it be true that happiness contributes to virtue, the principle furnishes us with some sort of excuse for the errors and excesses of able young men, at the bottom of life, fretting with impatience under their obscurity, and hatching a thousand chimeras of being neglected and overlooked by the world. The natural cure of these errors is the sunshine of prosperity ; as they get happier, they get better ; and learn from the respect which they receive from others to respect themselves. "Whenever," says Mr. Lancaster (in his book just published), "I met with a boy particularly mischievous, I made him a monitor ; I never knew this fail." The *cause* for the promotion, and the kind of encouragement it must occasion, I confess, appear rather singular ; but of the *effect*, I have no sort of doubt.

### HOLBROOK'S SCHOOL APPARATUS.

Mr. Hinman, agent for disposing of Holbrook's School Apparatus, is now going about the State for the purpose of exhibiting it to school officers and teachers. The set contains a planetarium, tellurium, globe, a set of solids, the cube root block, &c. &c. The price is \$20. They are all useful, and we hope that the districts which can afford it, will generally purchase them.

### REPORTS OF TOWN COMMITTEES.

We have received several reports of School Committees which we should have been glad to insert in the Magazine in full. The report of the Committee of Warwick, and of Rev. George A. Willard, their Visiting Committee, contains many very valuable suggestions for the improvement of the schools. The report of the School Committee of Glocester also gives a very interesting account of their schools. Rev. Mr. Otis, County Inspector, but not a member of the Committee, has rendered important assistance to the Committee in the examination of teachers, which is acknowledged in their report.

**BRONCHITIS.**—A writer in the Baltimore Sun, who has been severely afflicted in his family by that appalling disease, bronchitis, has found relief from the following remedy: "Take honey in the comb, squeeze it out and dilute with a little water, and wet the lips and mouth occasionally with it." It has never been known to fail in cases even where children had throats so swollen as to be unable to swallow. It is certainly a simple remedy, and may be a very efficacious one.

Young man, attend to the voice of one who has possessed a certain degree of fame in the world, and who will shortly appear before his Maker. Read the Bible every day of your life.—*Dr. S. Johnson.*

**NOTE.**—The Educational Magazine is published by SAYLES, MILLER & SIMONS, at Providence, R. I. Price 50 cents per annum, payable in advance. All communications should be addressed, post paid, to E. R. POTTER, at Providence, or at Kingston, R. I.

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